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No. 3625: July 1, 1936

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THE TEXAS MUNICIPAL CIVIL SERVICE

By

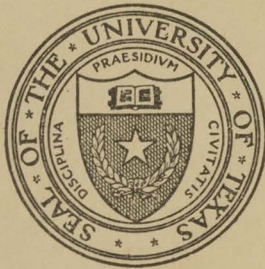
R. WELDON COOPER

Acting Director of the Bureau of Municipal Research

Bureau of Research in the Social Sciences

Study No. 21

Municipal Studies, No. 8



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The benefits of education and of useful knowledge, generally diffused through a community, are essential to the preservation of a free government.

Sam Houston

Cultivated mind is the guardian genius of Democracy, and while guided and controlled by virtue, the noblest attribute of man. It is the only dictator that freemen acknowledge and the only security which freemen desire.

Mirabeau B. Lamar

Municipal Studies of The University of Texas

Number 8

BUREAU OF MUNICIPAL RESEARCH

THE TEXAS MUNICIPAL CIVIL SERVICE

By

R. WELDON COOPER

Acting Director of the Bureau of Municipal Research



Bureau of Research in the Social Sciences

Study No. 21

TO
J. A. C.

PREFACE

If one were called upon to survey the recent developments in the field of government and to rank them in the order of their importance, he would have to accord a prominent position to governmental personnel. A reawakened interest in the policies and methods of personnel administration, flowing in large part from the current public problems pressing for solution, has culminated in a general frontal attack designed to eliminate backward personnel methods and the spoils system. While possessing some of the fervor of the older program of civil service reform, the new movement is concerned less with the spoilsman than was the old and more with the installation and observance of progressive principles of personnel management.

It is clear that the city, which is one of the largest single public employers, must play a prominent rôle in the program of personnel improvement. Evidence is not lacking of a renewed interest by city officials and citizens in the Texas municipal civil service. Since such developments in improved personnel practices as have occurred in Texas have resulted largely from the efforts of cities, it appears that a review of municipal personnel administration will serve as the basis for a program of improvement. While the needs of the city have been stressed, it should be noted that many of the principles of public personnel administration discussed herein are applicable also to both State and county. In this respect the study transcends municipal boundaries.

A number of persons assisted in the preparation of the study. First recognition must be accorded the hundreds of municipal officials in Texas who aided by supplying information. Mr. Lyndon E. Abbott, former Research Assistant in the Bureau of Municipal Research of The University of Texas, had complete charge of the field work and prepared a preliminary manuscript. To his efforts may be ascribed a considerable portion of the credit for whatever of merit

the study possesses. Professor Roscoe C. Martin, Director of the Bureau of Municipal Research, Mr. Henry F. Hubbard, Assistant Director of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, Mr. E. M. Powell, Secretary and Chief Examiner of the Dallas Civil Service Board, and Mr. E. E. McAdams, Executive Secretary of the League of Texas Municipalities, each read the manuscript and made suggestions which were of material assistance. Financial support for the preparation and publication of the study was provided by the Bureau of Research in the Social Sciences of The University of Texas.

R. WELDON COOPER.

Austin, Texas.

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INTRODUCTION

The human element in the public service has long been accorded a high position among the problems confronting those who would direct the work of government toward the goals demanded by the community. This human element, comprising the employees engaged in determining and executing the functions of a particular government, may be divided into two general classes. The first includes officials selected by popular vote or occupying such positions as cause them to participate directly in the formulation of policies for which they must expect eventually to be held responsible, directly or indirectly, at the ballot box. This group is small numerically and transitory in character, but its commanding position has caused it to receive a major portion of the attention accorded governmental personnel in times past.

The second class is composed of the larger number of more permanent employees who are occupied with the task of effectuating those plans which have been prepared by the executive and the legislature. Although this class is generally considered to have no part in policy making, it has been recognized in recent times that its superior technical knowledge makes inevitable some participation in the formulation of policy. This recognition, coupled with the rapid increase in the number of public employees occasioned by the ever-expanding scope of governmental functions, has operated in recent years to elevate the group to its rightful position of prominence. Certain it is that the magnitude of the public personnel alone renders imperative an increased attention by those who would obtain the greatest returns from the processes of government.

The old dispute as to the relative importance of a properly organized administration and an efficient personnel in realizing the purposes of a government need not occasion any lengthy discussion here. It is a truism that a perfect organization cannot realize its potentialities unless it is

manned by an intelligent and capable personnel. It is equally well known that the ultimate success of any government will depend in the final instance on the degree to which its personnel is able to discharge satisfactorily the duties prescribed for it, not least among which is the obligation of suggesting improvements in the administrative structure.

A number of factors are responsible for the increased attention given to public employment. The tremendous expansion of the scope of governmental activities, with its accompanying increase in public expenditures, has led to a reawakened interest in government and therefore in public personnel. Again, the increasingly technical character of the duties performed has resulted in the employment of a greater number of professional and scientific persons, who, by virtue of the nature of their duties, cannot without violence be made subject to political changes. Further, the improvement of personnel management in private business has developed a system with which, in some respects, public employment has compared unfavorably. Important also as an immediate factor has been the depression, which, necessitating a reduction of public expenditures, has led to a reconsideration of personnel, since outlays for this purpose constitute the largest single item of operating costs. In addition, many individuals, formerly safely ensconced in private business, have found themselves without work and consequently have turned to the various units of government as possible sources of employment. This fact is shown most clearly by the tremendous increase in the number of applicants for positions in the public service.

Due to the influence of these among other factors, various organizations have concerned themselves in recent years with the problem of improving public personnel. The National Civil Service Reform League, National Municipal League, International City Managers' Association, Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, National League of Women Voters, and many other agencies, both public and private, have inaugurated and supported programs designed to direct public attention to this matter.

Probably the most significant occurrence in the field of public personnel in recent years is the report of the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel which was made in 1935. The Commission was selected primarily to study the present state of public employment in the United States and to make recommendations for its improvement. The results of its investigations were published in a series of monographs which have the greatest value for both student and layman.¹ These publications may well cause 1935 to rank along with 1883 in its significance in the history of American public personnel administration.

Although the development of public thinking on public personnel in this country has received considerable attention in other studies,² it will be well at this time, in order to build an approach to the problem of municipal personnel in Texas, to note briefly the major changes which have occurred. Introduced at an early time, the spoils system implies the selection of public servants on the basis of party service, with tenure being dependent on the continuance of that particular party in power. Established during the early days when the public service was essentially non-technical in character, this policy continues its grip on the public personnel of many jurisdictions and may be said to characterize the personnel policies of a majority of the cities of Texas at the present time. It goes almost without saying that the spoils system negates virtually every principle of sound personnel administration.

The movement for civil service reform came largely as the result of a reaction in public thinking against the excesses of the spoils system, which occasioned a frenzied

¹A general summary of the findings and recommendations of the Commission may be found in the Report of the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel, *Better Government Personnel* (New York, 1935), pp. 3-84.

²See Leonard D. White, *Introduction to the Study of Public Administration* (New York, 1926), pp. 219-230; Institute for Training in Municipal Administration, *Municipal Personnel Administration* (Chicago, 1935), pp. 14-25; and William E. Mosher and J. Donald Kingsley, *Public Personnel Administration* (New York, 1936), pp. 17-37.

scramble for public offices with each change in administration. In 1883 the federal government dealt the spoils system a heavy blow with the formation of a civil service commission, and this form of personnel administration spread to such extent that by 1930 approximately 250 cities had installed civil service commissions having jurisdiction over a part or all of the municipal service.³ Likewise, ten states and a few counties have established civil service commissions. Due to the exigencies surrounding the birth of the reform movement, it was only natural that emphasis should have been placed on securing uninterrupted tenure for public servants through the agency of a non-partisan civil service commission. Periodical examinations and the limitation of protection to the more elementary positions formed the basis of the movement. The main purpose was to prevent the unwarranted dismissal of public employees rather than to secure and train the proper personnel.

The recognized deficiencies of the original personnel systems led to the inception of a more positive merit system which, while continuing to place emphasis on tenure, adopts at the same time a more vigorous policy of training and supervising those engaged in public activities. Less importance is attached to the civil service commission and its independent status, and more attention is given to the type and character of personnel recruited. As can be seen, the merit system may well be practiced in the absence of the familiar safeguards against partisan interference, and in fact some of the most pronounced successes under this system have been accomplished without the aid of a civil service commission.⁴ It should be noted, however, that there is less assurance of permanence in those personnel systems lacking legislative foundations.

One of the principal requirements of a genuine merit system is that the public service be placed on a career basis. The chief impetus for the creation of a career service was

³Leonard D. White, *Trends in Public Administration* (New York, 1933), p. 246.

⁴The personnel agency is given special attention in Chapter IV.

furnished by the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel when it recommended that

the day-to-day administrative work of government be definitely made a career service. By this we mean that steps shall be taken to make public employment a worthwhile life work, with entrance to the service open and attractive to young men and women of capacity and character, and with opportunity of advancement through service and growth to positions of distinction and honor.⁵

The development of a career service depends largely on the extent to which a merit system has been adopted. The Commission specified certain conditions as prerequisites for the installation of a career service in public employment. These include a definite legal basis; an agency responsible for the achievement of the career system; entrance to the service based solely upon the capacities of the individual; entrance in most instances limited to younger candidates and correlated with the educational system of the nation; opportunities for advancement and promotion; an equitable policy of remuneration; sound retirement policies; the elimination of discharges or demotions for personal, religious, or political reasons; and a unified and vigorous support for the development of the career system.⁶

With a few exceptions, it may be said that the most progressive personnel practices in Texas cities have not developed beyond the period of civil service reform. To almost all public officials in this State the term "civil service" suggests the presence of a civil service commission and accompanying safeguards against the discharge of public employees for political or personal reasons. The general use of the term "civil service" renders necessary some attention to the terminology to be employed in this study. The civil service of a city may be said to include its civil employees and officials, with the exception of elective officers, members of policy-determining boards, judges, and the

⁵Report of the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

⁶*Ibid.*, pp. 27-32.

highest executive officers. As will be noted, the work of the civil service is concerned in large part with administration. Public administration is coming more and more to be recognized as a distinct part of the work of government which alters to some extent the traditional tri-partite division of functions among legislative, executive, and judicial branches. This raises the important and timely question as to the proper relations between politics, or policy determination, and administration, or policy execution. The necessity of arriving at some usable delineation of the respective spheres of operation of politics and administration is particularly evident in the city, since the juxtaposition of the two at that level compels a more intimate relationship than ordinarily is found in larger units of government—a relationship having important consequences for the municipal civil service.⁷

Proceeding on the basis outlined by these considerations, the term “civil service” will be employed ordinarily to designate the subordinate employees, including the heads of departments, who comprise the municipal personnel. Some members of the civil service, such as stenographers and clerks, are engaged in the performance of routine tasks. In other positions the exercise of a large amount of discretion may be required, as in making assessments, in purchasing, or in preparing the budget. In addition, administrative officials may assist in the formulation of policy by suggestions to the governing body and by preparing statements on subjects with which the legislators have only a cursory acquaintance. The customary division among administrative, executive, and legislative duties thus is not always clearly defined, since some municipal officials perform functions which relate to the work of more than one branch. Mayors, for example, may serve as administrators, legislators, and executives; and city commissioners acting under the commission form of government perform in the dual capacity of legislators and administrators. Such officials, however, are few in number when compared with the

⁷For a discussion of this general question, see John M. Pfiffner, *Public Administration* (New York, 1935), pp. 9–14.

entire civil service, and the questions raised by their presence, while important, are not of sufficient weight to invalidate the assumption that they are administrative officers.

A review of public personnel administration in Texas reveals a woeful lack of application of the principles of the merit system in the several political jurisdictions.⁸ The State government has no civil service commission, and while the spoils system does not operate with equal virulence in all departments, only one agency, the Department of Public Safety, has been directed by statute to install a merit system.⁹ The lack of a merit system in the State administration is due in no small part to a provision of the State Constitution which specifies that "the duration of all offices not fixed by this Constitution shall never exceed two years. . . ."¹⁰ Although the courts have not determined finally the scope of the term "offices," they have held that chief

⁸As used hereafter, the term "merit system" implies a personnel policy which results in the recruitment of public employees and their retention in the service on the basis of ability and performance. The term is applied generally with a full recognition of the imperfections of the existing systems. Under the terms of this definition a civil service commission or personnel agency is not an absolute prerequisite.

⁹A recent survey of the State government summarized this deficiency in personnel administration when it reported that "Preposterous as it will seem a few years hence, and deplorable as it is now, it is nevertheless a fact that the people of Texas have put no law on the books establishing the principle and the requirement that when a public position is to be filled it must be filled by a person chosen because of his qualifications to perform the duties involved. . . . The question of personnel cannot possibly be separated from the question of organization for good administration. The requirements of sound organization, effective procedure, and a competent personnel loyal to the public interest are closely related, but the third is the most important of the three. It is fundamental." Report of the Joint Legislative Committee on Organization and Economy, *The Government of the State of Texas* (Austin, 1933), Part I, pp. 7-8. Since this was written, a merit system has been provided for the Department of Public Safety.

With the exception of the school district, lax personnel methods are generally found in all the units of local government. See Roscoe C. Martin, *Urban Local Government in Texas* (Austin, 1936), Chapter X.

¹⁰*The Constitution of the State of Texas*, Art. XVI, Sec. 30.

clerks in the State departments come within its meaning and by implication have indicated that the term would be defined in a broad sense. Likewise, the Texas county operates openly under the spoils system, without the presence of a single county civil service commission. An attempt in 1929 to install a civil service commission in Tarrant County and to provide indefinite tenure for the appointive officials was nullified when an appellate court held that the law was in violation of the constitutional limitation.¹¹ From this decision it would appear that the installation of the merit system in the counties of Texas must await the removal of the two-year tenure limitation from the Constitution.

Since there is no civil service statute in Texas applicable to cities, these units have installed merit systems by ordinance, by charter amendment, or by departmental rules and regulations. Municipal freedom in this instance, however, is not as broad as might be expected since some city officials have been held to be officers affected by the constitutional limitation on tenure. In 1904 a charter provision of the City of Houston requiring that police officers should hold office during good behavior was declared invalid on the ground of the constitutional two-year limit.¹² It was also held that the limitation cannot be circumvented by the requirement that an automatic reappointment be made at the end of each biennial period. A recent decision of an appellate court reaffirms the earlier case.¹³ While the courts have not indicated the extent to which they will apply the constitutional limitation in the municipal service, it can be seen that its application to the police department alone will affect a large portion of the municipal personnel and consequently form a convenient entrance for the spoilsman should the occasion present itself. In the discussions to follow the constitutional limitation should be kept in mind.

In view of the age of many of the Texas cities, it is surprising that only a few have created a formal merit system

¹¹*Donges v. Beall*, 41 S.W. (2d) 531 (1931).

¹²*City of Houston v. Mahoney*, 80 S.W. 1142 (1904).

¹³*McDonald v. City of Dallas*, 69 S.W. (2d) 175 (1934).

as evidenced by the establishment of a civil service commission. The earliest such installation was in San Antonio, where a commission with jurisdiction over the fire and police departments was in existence from 1905 to 1907. Unfortunately, this commission became embroiled in a local dispute and nothing was done toward establishing a merit system, although one result was a court decision which upheld the legality of the commission.¹⁴ The first permanent civil service commission was established in Houston in 1913 and was given complete jurisdiction over a large part of the municipal personnel. Four years later El Paso established a commission whose authority was limited to the fire and police departments; in the same year Galveston adopted a charter amendment placing the fire and police departments under a merit system. Nothing was done to effect the installation of the Galveston system until 1921, when an enabling ordinance was passed. The experiment proved to be short-lived, however, and the ordinance was repealed two years later. Since that time civil service commissions have been established in Fort Worth in 1925, San Antonio and Dallas in 1931, and Waco in 1935. In the last year El Paso extended the merit system to the remainder of its municipal service by the creation of a commission with jurisdiction over that portion of its employees outside the police and fire departments. This places El Paso in the unique position of having two personnel agencies, one for the police and fire departments, known as the City Police and Fire Civil Service Commission, and another for the remainder of the municipal personnel, called simply the Civil Service Commission. Thus, only six cities in Texas have created formal merit systems, five of which now apply to a major portion of the civil service.

It should be noted, however, that the absence of formal merit systems in most Texas cities does not of necessity indicate a complete lack of merit principles in the appointment and supervision of the municipal civil service. On the contrary, several of the cities are applying the principles of

¹⁴*Callaghan v. McGown*, 90 S.W. 319 (1905).

the merit system through departmental rules and regulations without the existence of a commission. The presence of approximately forty manager cities in Texas also indicates that some intelligent attention likely is being devoted to personnel administration. With all these facts in mind, however, it must be said that the merit system has not been applied generally, and that in most cases the cities are still operating under a plan which at best is only a modified form of the spoils system.

In view of the facts which have been presented, it is evident that some attention should be given to the matter of municipal personnel in Texas. For purposes of convenience this study has been divided into two parts. The first will be concerned with an analysis of the extent and cost of municipal personnel, and will reveal the large number of municipal employees and the significance of the problem as indicated by the current expenditures for personal services. The second part will treat of the more important personnel practices. An examination will be made of such factors as the personnel agency, recruitment, training, in-service problems, and retirement, and a summary of the present practices of the cities of Texas will be given together with suggestions of methods for improvement.

At least three groups, namely the public, the administrator, and the employee, will find something of profit in this study. For the general public it constitutes a source of information as to the present status of the municipal civil service in Texas, and furnishes some recommendations as to a positive program of action. Too often has the public made impossible demands on municipal civil servants which have grown largely from a lack of information as to the conditions of public employment. The prospects for improvement in the personnel of any governmental unit depend upon an enlightened public, which should make a vigorous demand that the public service become something more than the plaything of spoils politicians.

The government official acting as employer will also find something of interest in the following pages. Responsibility for the application of new principles and standards

and the realization of progressive personnel policies rests upon him, and reasoned judgment in this matter requires much study and thought. The third group, the employees who make up the civil service, are vitally concerned with the conditions of public employment. They seek security of tenure, retirement with pensions, a fair arrangement of work, and, in the instance of the administrative officers, a career service. To them the principles of promotion, salary schedules, vacations, and retirement are translated into considerations of economic standards, social prestige, personal satisfaction, and pleasure in the performance of their duties. In many respects, then, their interest in personnel administration is no less important than that of the public and the administrator.

The fact should be kept in mind from the beginning, however, that the municipal civil service cannot be administered in every instance in accordance with prior plans which may be expected to function effectively in every circumstance. Various factors will operate to insure the success of the merit system in one city and leave it open to prostitution or abandonment in another. In those municipal jurisdictions where the spoils system has held sway for a long period, it is necessary, perhaps, that an independent civil service commission be employed, while in other instances a general acceptance of the principles of the merit system permits inclusion of the personnel agency as a regular part of the municipal administration. It cannot be overstressed, then, that a careful study of each city should precede the installation of any type of merit system, which must be carefully nurtured and guided following its creation. Too often formal systems have been installed under auspicious circumstances only to lapse to a level of mediocre performance after a short time. It is hoped that this study will assist in focusing attention on the significance of the Texas municipal civil service and encourage the inauguration of a general program for improvement.

PART I
EXTENT AND COST

CHAPTER I

SIZE

For many years students of public administration in this country have commented on certain major shortcomings in government practices. Not least among these is the matter of public reporting, which is practiced to such a limited extent in most jurisdictions as to make available little information relating to the activities of the government. One who attempts to secure information on the number of public employees becomes painfully aware of this deficiency. Only those jurisdictions which have formal merit systems go to the trouble to issue annual personnel reports, and many of these are incomplete. Yet it is essential that some knowledge be had of the number of public servants and the expenditures made for personal services.

Part I will be devoted to an examination of this phase of the personnel problem. The first chapter will present a picture of the present size of the city personnel. The second chapter will be concerned with the amount of public moneys presently being expended by the cities for personal services. The third chapter will treat of the annual salaries of some of the more important administrative officials and subordinate employees. With this over-all view in mind, it will then be in order to proceed to a consideration of personnel practices.

The number of municipal employees in the United States is a matter of conjecture, since in only a few cities are personnel reports made mandatory. A careful study made in 1934 revealed an estimated total of 591,500 municipal employees in 1932.¹ Utilizing these figures, the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel found that

¹United States Department of Commerce, *National Income, 1929-32*, Seventy-third Congress, Second Session, Senate Document No. 124, pp. 129-131. This enumeration includes those employees serving in

municipal employees constituted 18 per cent of all public employees in the United States in 1932.² This enumeration separates the educational employees from the municipal service; if those engaged in the municipal school systems are included as a part of the city personnel, the number of municipal employees rises to 1,092,500, or approximately one-third of the total for the nation. By this method of enumeration the city surpasses all other units of government in the number of employees.

In the effort to ascertain the size of the municipal personnel in Texas, little difficulty was experienced in obtaining the number of full-time employees, but a different situation was encountered as to part-time workers. In fact, it would have been impossible to have checked accurately the number of persons who had worked part-time for the city during the preceding year without a painstaking investigation of each pay roll. Some cities either reported no part-time workers or estimated the number with some such indefinite word as "several" or "many." The different employment policies prevailing with regard to common labor also added to the difficulty of enumeration. Thus Austin regularly employs the same men on unskilled labor jobs, while Galveston budgets its labor into work hours and employs each person for three eight-hour days per week. The Galveston policy, which is designed to give work to as many men as possible, will produce a larger number of employees than the method used in Austin, thus making difficult an accurate comparison between the two cities.

the legislative and judicial branches and figures part-time employees by reducing them to the equivalent number of full-time employees.

An estimate for 1926 reported the number of full-time municipal officials and employees to be 534,897 and the number of part-time employees, including all those receiving some compensation, whether regularly or occasionally employed, to be 527,000. W. E. Mosher and Sophie Polah, "Public Employment in the United States," *National Municipal Review*, Supplement, Vol. XXI (January, 1932), p. 71.

²Clarence Heer, "A Statistical Analysis of the Public Service," in Report of the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel, *Better Government Personnel* (New York, 1935), pp. 137-142.

Another practice causing some difficulty is found in the plan existing in a few cities whereby persons with delinquent water bills are permitted to pay them through employment by the city. These facts must be kept in mind in subsequent discussions of part-time employees, for the data are necessarily incomplete. In cases of doubt, however, conservative estimates were made, so that the figures used undoubtedly are lower than the actual number.

In the analysis which follows, certain classes of municipal employees and officials are not considered. The classes excluded are those connected with or working in public schools, public libraries, the judiciary, the city council or commission (unless serving as mayor or some full-time administrative officer), and such policy-forming or advisory boards as park, planning, recreation, and fire prevention. Volunteer firemen are also excluded, since they are largely unpaid and since their inclusion would serve to distort the figures in the lower population groups and thus lead to erroneous conclusions.

To permit the making of comparisons among cities of different sizes in the matters of numbers of civil servants and expenditures for personnel, the municipalities are classified by population ranges. These groups are six in number and include those cities with populations of (1) 100,000 and over,³ (2) 40,000 to 100,000,⁴ (3) 10,000 to 40,000,⁵ (4) 5,000 to 10,000, (5) 2,500 to 5,000, and (6) 1,000 to 2,500.⁶

³This group is composed of the cities of Houston, Dallas, San Antonio, Fort Worth, and El Paso. The largest city is Houston with a population of 292,352 in 1930.

⁴This group is composed of the cities of Beaumont, Austin, Galveston, Waco, Port Arthur, Wichita Falls, and Amarillo.

⁵The population figure of 30,000 is generally used in national reports as a dividing point in presenting statistics relating to cities. The only Texas city with a population between 30,000 and 40,000 is Laredo, which more closely resembles cities below 30,000 than those over 40,000. Consequently 40,000 was thought to be the more satisfactory dividing point since this would group Laredo with the smaller cities.

⁶The population figures are based on the census of 1930 unless otherwise indicated.

Since it was not possible to visit all cities of 1,000 population and over, it was necessary to rely in part on a questionnaire. For this reason the data are not complete for all Texas cities of 1,000 population and over since some failed to respond to the request for information. A study of Table I will reveal, however, that a substantial portion

TABLE I

A COMPARISON, BY POPULATION GROUPS, OF ALL CITIES AND THOSE SUPPLYING PERSONNEL DATA*

Population Group	Total Cities—		Cities Supplying—		Per-centage of All Cities Supplying Data	Percentage of Total Population Included in Cities Supplying Data
	Number	Population	Number	Population		
100,000 and Over	5	1,050,237	5	1,050,237	100.0	100.0
40,000 to 100,000	7	354,362	7	354,362	100.0	100.0
10,000 to 40,000	25	425,750	20	353,957	80.0	83.1
5,000 to 10,000	47	316,255	38	263,302	80.9	83.3
2,500 to 5,000	74	268,799	56	205,391	75.7	76.4
1,000 to 2,500	183	291,690	134	216,813	73.2	74.3
Total	341	2,707,093	260	2,444,062	76.2	90.3

*The population figures are based on the Census of 1930. In order to care for abnormal population growths, the population of Longview has been raised from 5,036 to 18,000, that of Tyler from 17,113 to 30,000, and that of University Park from 4,200 to 7,000. Seven cities which have dissolved their municipal corporations and one city which has fallen below 1,000 population since 1930 are excluded.

of all cities supplied the personnel data requested. Thus it will be noted that all cities of 40,000 and above participated in the survey. This is of particular importance since, as will be shown later, this group employs approximately two-thirds of the total municipal personnel in Texas. Out of 329 cities having a population of 1,000 to 40,000, 248, or 75 per cent, are included. Considering each population range separately, it will be noted that the lowest percentage of cities reporting in any group is 73.2, while for all cities a total of 76.2 per cent participated. An additional point of interest relates to the population of the

cities included. The range is from 100 per cent in those cities of 40,000 population and above to 74.3 per cent in the municipalities of the 1,000 to 2,500 group. Considering the population of all the cities, it will be found that 90.3 per cent resides in the cities included in this survey. A summation shows, then, that three-fourths of all Texas cities of 1,000 population and over, including nine-tenths of the total inhabitants of all cities in this group, supplied with the exception of a few items the information desired.

Table II reveals that in 1935, 249 Texas cities of 1,000 population and over had a total of 14,773 employees, of which 12,878 were full-time and 1,895 part-time. As will be observed, the proportion of employees on a part-time

TABLE II
FULL-TIME AND PART-TIME EMPLOYEES IN 249 CITIES, BY
POPULATION GROUPS, 1935*

Population Group	Number of Cities	Full-Time Employees	Part-Time Employees	Full- and Part-Time Employees	Average Number of Employees per City	
					Full-Time	Full- and Part-Time
100,000 and Over	5	6,745	313	7,058	1,349	1,412
40,000 to 100,000	7	2,412	538	2,950	345	421
10,000 to 40,000	20	1,617	248	1,865	81	93
5,000 to 10,000	38	1,005	322	1,327	26	35
2,500 to 5,000	53	531	176	707	10	13
1,000 to 2,500	126	568	298	866	5	7
Total	249	12,878	1,895	14,773	52	59

*Three cities in the population group 2,500 to 5,000, and eight in the 1,000 to 2,500 class, returned the questionnaire but did not report the number of employees.

basis is much less in the larger than in the smaller cities, constituting only 4.4 per cent in the group of 100,000 and over and mounting steadily to 34.4 per cent in those from 1,000 to 2,500. This tendency may be explained by the fact that many of the smaller municipalities employ such officials as health officer, marshal, and attorney on a part-time

basis, while these officers or their equivalent in the more populous municipalities are employed full-time. There is also the fact that the employment of a part-time assistant by a city secretary in the average municipality below 2,500 population would act to double that official's staff, which of course would not be true in the larger city employing several persons in this office.

Another point of interest is found in the average number of full-time employees per city, which reaches the highest number, 1,349, in those cities of 100,000 population and above and the lowest, 5, in the 1,000 to 2,500 group. Nothing could suggest more clearly the range in the variety of services performed by the larger cities, nor the comparatively simple activities of the smaller municipalities. In the instance of the average number of full- and part-time employees per city, the trend in general remains the same.

Another view of municipal employment may be gained from consideration of the number of inhabitants for each employee and the number of employees per 1,000 population, which is the subject of Table III. The group comprising the five largest cities (100,000 and over) has 156 inhabitants for each full-time employee. With the excep-

TABLE III

NUMBER OF INHABITANTS PER EMPLOYEE AND NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES
PER 1,000 POPULATION IN 249 CITIES, BY POPULATION
GROUPS, 1935

Population Group	Number of Inhabitants per Employee		Number of Employees per 1,000 Population	
	Full-Time	Full- and Part-Time	Full-Time	Full- and Part-Time
100,000 and Over	156	149	6.4	6.7
40,000 to 100,000	147	120	6.8	8.3
10,000 to 40,000	219	190	4.6	5.3
5,000 to 10,000	262	198	3.8	5.0
2,500 to 5,000	361	271	2.8	3.7
1,000 to 2,500	363	238	2.8	4.2

tion of the 40,000 to 100,000 group the number of inhabitants per full-time employee climbs steadily until the smallest group is reached, where a total of 363 for each employee is found. It is noteworthy that the cities in the

40,000 to 100,000 population range have the smallest number of inhabitants for each full-time employee. The general trend remains the same if the comparison is based upon the number of inhabitants for all employees, including both full-time and part-time. The same situation is revealed by a different approach when the number of employees per 1,000 population is studied. The range from the smallest to the largest cities in this instance is found to be from 2.8 to 6.4 employees per 1,000 population.⁷ If the part-time employees are included, the smallest number of employees per 1,000 inhabitants is found in the 2,500 to 5,000 group and the largest number in the 40,000 to 100,000 range.

The general tendency for municipal employment in Texas to increase at a more rapid pace than the population is not difficult of explanation, since of necessity the larger cities must engage in certain activities which are either ignored or handled by private agencies in the smaller cities. There is the additional fact that the volunteer fire departments of the smaller units are not included. The aberration noted in the instance of the cities of the 40,000 to 100,000 group, however, does not lend itself to such an obvious explanation. While no definite reason can be assigned for the failure of this group to follow the general trend, it may be said that several of these cities grew rapidly from 1920 to 1930 and added certain activities to the municipal calendar which ordinarily are not supported by cities of this size. As a result, some of them have been forced to retain a relatively large number of employees in recent years despite the drastic cuts necessitated by the depression.

On the basis of the number of employees it is possible to make a comparison between the cities of Texas and 244 cities throughout the United States as of 1934.⁸ Such a

⁷A similar trend has been found to operate throughout the country. "The size of the public service tends steadily to increase, in somewhat greater proportion than population." Leonard D. White, *Trends in Public Administration* (New York, 1933), p. 266.

⁸*The Municipal Year Book, 1935* (International City Managers' Association), p. 201.

study shows that the number of employees per 1,000 population for United States cities between 100,000 and 500,000 was 8.4 and for cities from 30,000 to 100,000, 7.5. The figures for the Texas groups most nearly approximating these population ranges are 6.4 employees for the cities of 100,000 and over and 6.8 for those from 40,000 to 100,000. While the population groups are not identical, the definite superiority of the national figures lends support to the conclusion that Texas cities of 40,000 and over have smaller staffs than cities of a similar size throughout the country.

Since the data presented in Tables II and III are for the 249 cities which supplied information on the number of civil servants, the question now arises: What is the total number of municipal employees in all Texas cities of 1,000 population and over? This total may be estimated both for full-time and for full- and part-time employees combined by use of the number of employees per 1,000 population found in Table III and the population of the cities not replying given in Table I. The results of these computations are presented in Table IV, which shows that in 1935

TABLE IV

FULL- AND PART-TIME EMPLOYEES IN ALL CITIES OF 1,000 POPULATION AND OVER, BY POPULATION GROUPS, 1935*

Population Group	Full-Time Employees				Full- and Part-Time Employees			
	In Cities Supplying Data	In Cities Not Supplying Data (Estimated)	Total	Per Cent of Total in Each Population Group	In Cities Supplying Data	In Cities Not Supplying Data (Estimated)	Total	Per Cent of Total in Each Population Group
100,000 and Over	6,745	----	6,745	48.7	7,058	-----	7,058	43.9
40,000 to 100,000	2,412	----	2,412	17.4	2,950	-----	2,950	18.4
10,000 to 40,000	1,617	328	1,945	14.0	1,865	380	2,245	14.0
5,000 to 10,000	1,005	202	1,207	8.7	1,327	267	1,594	9.9
2,500 to 5,000	531	213	744	5.4	707	283	990	6.2
1,000 to 2,500	568	236	804	5.8	866	359	1,225	7.6
Total	12,878	979	13,857	100.0	14,773	1,289	16,062	100.0

*The personnel of the eleven cities which returned the questionnaire but failed to give the number of employees is included in the estimated columns.

there were approximately 14,000 full-time municipal officials and employees in Texas cities of 1,000 population and over (excluding schools, libraries, the judiciary, and city councils) and at least 2,000 part-time employees. The total for the full-time employees may be accepted as substantially correct; as previously suggested, there is little doubt that the number of part-time workers is larger than 2,000.

A consideration of the total number of full-time employees in the various population ranges reveals that almost 49 per cent serve the five largest cities in the State and that the twelve cities of 40,000 population and over employ 66 per cent. From these facts it can be readily seen that so far as the extent of the municipal personnel is concerned, the larger cities deserve the greater amount of attention. It should not be supposed, however, that the personnel of the smaller cities is not important. In fact, the sudden removal of two or three of the few employees of a small city would work greater havoc in that unit than a similar action in a larger municipality. And, as will be shown subsequently, the smaller cities may profit to a considerable degree by following some of the more elementary principles of personnel administration which apply in every jurisdiction.

Another question which naturally arises relates to the functional duties of the municipal employees; that is, what departments of the government does the present personnel serve? Although the information on this subject is not complete, it was possible to secure data on the number of employees working in the fire, police, and utility departments of sixty-four of the seventy Texas cities of 5,000 population and over which participated in this survey.⁹ For the purposes of this tabulation those included in the fire department embrace all employees of that unit plus the fire alarm operators; the police employees comprise all those employed in the police department regardless of the

⁹Cities below 5,000 population are not included since they are usually served by volunteer fire departments. In these cities, the utility services commonly account for the bulk of the personnel.

nature of their service; and the utility services include all employees engaged in some capacity in the departments concerned with water, sewer, power and light, gas distribution, airports, and abattoirs.

As will be observed from a study of Table V, the major portion of the municipal employees, in cities of 5,000 population and over is found in the fire, police, and utility services, which account for 55 per cent of the total number.

TABLE V

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL FULL-TIME PERSONNEL ENGAGED
IN FIRE, POLICE, AND UTILITY SERVICES IN SIXTY-FOUR CITIES, BY
POPULATION GROUPS, 1935

Population Group	Total Full- Time Em- ployees	Fire Employees		Police Employees		Utility Employees		Fire, Police, and Utility Employees	
		Number	Per Cent of Total	Num- ber	Per Cent of Total	Num- ber	Per Cent of Total	Num- ber	Per Cent of Total
100,000 and Over	6,745	1,424	21.1	1,143	16.9	1,043	15.5	3,610	53.5
40,000 to 100,000	2,412	447	18.5	354	14.7	529	21.9	1,330	55.1
10,000 to 40,000	1,617	305	18.8	262	16.2	362	22.4	929	57.4
5,000 to 10,000	909	133	14.6	168	18.5	247	27.2	548	60.3
Total	11,683	2,309	19.8	1,927	16.5	2,181	18.7	6,417	55.0

The employees of the publicly owned utilities constitute a greater percentage in the smaller cities than in the larger, while the proportion engaged in the fire services tends to increase with the size of the city. With the exception of the cities in the 5,000 to 10,000 group, the firemen outnumber the police. In this respect the Texas cities show a trend similar to that for the United States. Of an estimated total of 591,500 municipal employees in the United States in 1932, 33 per cent were in the police and fire services, and 16 per cent were engaged in the operation of municipal public utilities.¹⁰ It will be noted that the percentage which fire, police, and utility employees are of the total service varies inversely with the size of the city.

¹⁰Clarence Heer, *op. cit.*, pp. 139, 145.

Thus, while these three divisions employ 53.5 per cent of the total personnel in cities of 100,000 population and over, the percentage increases to 60.3 for those in the 5,000 to 10,000 range. This tendency is explained in part by the fact that as the city increases in size it branches out into new fields of activity, with the result that persons are employed in other divisions than the traditional fire, police, and utility departments. Relatively, therefore, the percentage of employees serving in the latter departments is reduced.

The presence in Texas of approximately 14,000 full-time municipal employees in cities of 1,000 population and over indicates that the problem of personnel is one of sufficient proportions to warrant some concern. Although cities in the smaller groups may find the matter of personnel administration relatively simple, due to the small number of employees per city, the problem becomes particularly acute in cities of 40,000 population and over. It is obvious that the remuneration of these 14,000 employees, a portion of whom hold positions of a professional and scientific character, reaches a considerable sum. This matter will constitute the next item for consideration.

CHAPTER II

COST

The duties of the municipal budget officer as regards personnel are, in a sense, two-fold. First, in determining the amount available for personal services, he must begin by computing the demands of certain "fixed charges," among them contractual commitments and interest and principal payments on the city's debt, which set a limit on the sum available for operating expenses. Second, he must fix the salary range for each of the several classes of employees. In short, he must determine how much money is to be devoted to personnel and how this money is to be spent.

The lead suggested by the budget officer's procedure, which is an integral part of the municipal routine, has been accepted for the purposes of this study. The present chapter will concern itself with an over-all view of the amounts currently expended by Texas cities for personnel. This will involve a consideration of the expenditures in the various population groups, the extent of salary reductions in recent years, and the present tendency in the matter of salary restorations. The following chapter (Chapter III) will involve a detailed study of the annual salaries presently paid to the more important officials in the municipal service.

One of the first questions which arises concerns the total annual expenditures for salaries and wages of the several cities in the various population groups. As Table VI shows, a total of 235 cities reported this information for their last fiscal year preceding June, 1935. One item of interest concerns the average expenditure per city. This sum ranges from \$1,617,315 in cities of 100,000 population and over to \$4,203 in the 1,000 to 2,500 group. While these amounts are not important in themselves they do reveal the expenditure by each city of a relatively large amount of public

funds. Special notice should be given the cities of 10,000 population and above, since the amount of money being spent by the average city in each of these groups suggests that a personnel agency is needed. This agency, which might be part-time in cities below 40,000, in all likelihood should be established on a full-time basis in cities of 40,000 and above, since the average expenditures in the larger cities appear to justify this added outlay.

TABLE VI
ANNUAL PERSONNEL EXPENDITURES OF 235 CITIES,
BY POPULATION GROUPS*

Population Group	Number of Cities	Total Expenditure	Average Expenditure per City	Average Expenditure per Capita	Average Salary per Full-Time Employee
100,000 and Over	5	\$8,086,575	\$1,617,315	\$7.70	\$1,199
40,000 to 100,000	7	2,949,331	421,333	8.32	1,223
10,000 to 40,000	19	1,584,985	83,420	4.69	1,000
5,000 to 10,000	34	1,042,218	30,653	4.43	1,150
2,500 to 5,000	47	521,275	11,091	3.05	1,099
1,000 to 2,500	123	516,971	4,203	2.54	931

*These figures are based upon the total expenditures in the last fiscal year of each city preceding June, 1935.

Although the use of per capita figures for expenditure purposes is open to attack because of the wide variations in functions performed by different cities, such figures are of some use since they reveal, in a general way, the tendency in personnel expenditures in their relation to the size of the city. Column 5 in Table VI shows a definite increase in per capita expenditures from the smallest population group upward with the exception of the seven cities in the 40,000 to 100,000 range, which spend the largest per capita amount. As will be remembered, these cities employ a greater number of civil servants per 1,000 population than

any other group;¹ hence the higher per capita expenditure is to be expected. One remaining point of interest in this connection is that the cities in the 5,000 to 10,000 and 10,000 to 40,000 groups do not show great variations in per capita expenditures, which provides some basis for the conclusion that their functions do not vary to any marked extent.

Another item of more than ordinary interest relates to the average salaries of the employees in each of the six population groups. For purposes of calculation the number of full-time employees has been used in each instance.² The average salaries for the several population groups, unlike the average per capita expenditures, appear to follow no definite trend so far as the size of the city is concerned. The cities in the 40,000 to 100,000 population range pay the highest salary, with the cities of 100,000 and over following closely; the municipalities in the 5,000 to 10,000 group are third. Although it may be said that the larger cities pay somewhat higher salaries than those in the lower population categories, the difference is not as great as might be expected.

A comparison of the average salaries in Texas cities with those paid in 1934 in 196 United States cities shows the former to be considerably lower. In this national survey it was found that the average salary in cities from 200,000 to 500,000 population was \$1,489; in cities from 100,000 to 200,000, \$1,434; and in cities from 30,000 to 100,000,

¹See Table III.

²The exclusion of part-time workers will tend to raise the average salary to a slight degree. In this connection it may be noted that a total of 115 cities supplied information on the expenditures for part-time employees. In six cities having a population of 10,000 and over, 4.3 per cent of the total expenditure is allotted to part-time workers; in twenty cities from 5,000 to 10,000, 17.2 per cent; in twenty-six cities, 2,500 to 5,000, 12.8 per cent; and in sixty-three cities, 1,000 to 2,500, 19.3 per cent. It appears, then, that part-time employees are not especially important as regards the percentages of the total personnel expenditures which they receive.

\$1,278.³ The lowest average salary paid by the cities in the national groups, \$1,278, is more than the highest average salary, \$1,222, paid by any of the Texas groups.⁴

The total expenditures for salaries and wages presented in Table VI are only for the 235 cities which supplied information on this question. By using the per capita expenditures given in that table, the total sum spent for this purpose in all Texas cities of 1,000 population and over may be estimated. The results of this calculation are given in Table VII, which reveals a total expenditure of approximately \$16,000,000 for personal services in the last fiscal year preceding June, 1935. This amount is likely to in-

TABLE VII
ANNUAL PERSONNEL EXPENDITURES OF ALL CITIES OF 1,000 POPULATION AND OVER, BY POPULATION GROUPS

Population Group	Personnel Expenditures		Total Personnel Expenditure	
	For Cities Supplying Data	For Cities not Supplying Data* (Estimated)	Amount	Per Cent
100,000 and Over	\$ 8,086,575	\$-----	\$ 8,086,575†	50.6
40,000 to 100,000	2,949,331	-----	2,949,331†	18.4
10,000 to 40,000	1,584,985	409,665	1,994,650	12.5
5,000 to 10,000	1,042,218	359,408	1,401,626	8.8
2,500 to 5,000	521,275	299,352	820,627	5.1
1,000 to 2,500	516,971	224,283	741,254	4.6
Total	\$14,701,355	\$1,292,708	\$15,994,063	100.0

*The estimates are based on the expenditures for the last fiscal year preceding June, 1935.

†These are actual expenditures since all cities in this group furnished information.

crease because of the current demand for salary restorations. In any event the sum constitutes a challenge to the

³*The Municipal Year Book, 1935*, p. 202.

⁴The superiority of the national average salary over that paid in Texas is probably greater than is here indicated, since the national figures are for 1934 and therefore do not take into account salary restorations made during the first few months of 1935.

municipal officials responsible for the direction of the civil service.

Table VII reveals further that the five largest cities account for more than half of the total amount spent. As will be remembered, it was estimated that this group employs almost 44 per cent of all civil servants in cities of 1,000 population and over.⁵ The three population groups composed of cities of 10,000 population and above spend 81.5 per cent of the total amount devoted to salaries and wages. While this indicates that the larger cities are of necessity more concerned with proper personnel practices than the smaller ones, it must be noted again that the personnel of the smaller municipalities is as important relatively as the larger personnel is to the more populous cities.

Closely related to the general problem of compensation is the matter of salary reductions. Like other public units throughout the country, Texas cities were forced by the declining revenues occasioned by the depression to effect drastic reductions in compensation, since this was the only alternative which offered an opportunity for a major reduction in governmental costs. These reductions were made arbitrarily in most instances and were determined more by the income of the city than by any scientific correlation with living costs. While some cities made a blanket percentage reduction for all employees, others followed a policy of weighting their reductions. Dallas, for example, lowered salaries under \$100 per month by 5 per cent; those from \$100 to \$416 by 12 per cent; and those over \$416 by 15 per cent. El Paso made wage cuts at all levels save that of the day laborer. Galveston reduced all annual salaries of \$1,000 by 10 per cent and the wages of all laborers by 20 per cent. Wichita Falls lowered annual salaries above \$1,500 by some 25 per cent and wages of laborers by 30 per cent. The range of salary reductions in San Angelo was from 15 to 40 per cent, and in Denison from 2 to 20 per cent.

⁵See Table IV.

The extent of salary reductions in the cities included in the several population ranges up to June, 1935, is shown in Table VIII, which indicates that reductions were general.⁶ The twelve cities of 40,000 population and over without exception reduced salaries, and the percentages in the other groups are relatively high, the smallest being 69.6 per cent

TABLE VIII
SALARY REDUCTIONS IN 252 CITIES, BY
POPULATION GROUPS, 1930-1935

Population Group	Total Number of Cities	Number Reducing Salaries	Number not Reducing Salaries	Per Cent Reducing Salaries
100,000 and Over	5	5	---	100.0
40,000 to 100,000	7	7	---	100.0
10,000 to 40,000	20	19	1	95.0
5,000 to 10,000	38	34	4	89.5
2,500 to 5,000	57	47	10	82.5
1,000 to 2,500	125	87	38	69.6
Total	252	199	53	79.0

for the 1,000 to 2,500 group. Strangely enough, there appear to have been fewer salary reductions in the smaller than in the larger cities.

Salary reductions were reported by 199 cities out of a total of 252. The percentage range of these reductions for the various population groups is shown in Table IX. The most prevalent percentage range of salary reductions was that from 11 to 20 which was used by 30.7 per cent of all cities reporting decreases in compensation. Eight cities reported reductions of over 40 per cent, and, as the table shows, the salary shrinkage in all cities was rather severe.

⁶In order to determine the percentage of reductions for those cities where the salary cuts varied, a figure was used which represented the average for the city.

Since the low point of the depression, municipal employees have clamored for a restoration of their salaries, and almost 60 per cent of the 196 Texas cities furnishing information on this point had acted favorably on their

TABLE IX
SALARY REDUCTIONS IN 199 CITIES, BY PERCENTAGE RANGES
AND POPULATION GROUPS, 1930-1935

Percentage Range of Salary Re- ductions	Distribution of Cities by Population Groups						Total Number Cities Per Cent	
	100,000 and Over	40,000 to 100,000	10,000 to 40,000	5,000 to 10,000	2,500 to 5,000	1,000 to 2,500		
1-10	1	2	7	13	11	11	45	22.6
11-20	3	2	4	8	14	30	61	30.7
21-30	1	1	2	5	9	20	38	19.1
31-40	---	2	5	3	8	11	29	14.6
Over 40	---	---	---	1	---	7	8	4.0
Per Cent not Reported	---	---	1	4	5	8	18	9.0
Total	5	7	19	34	47	87	199	100.0

demand to some extent by mid-year of 1935. As indicated in Table X, only 8.2 per cent of the cities had made a full restoration of reductions, while 51.5 per cent had made a

TABLE X
SALARY RESTORATIONS IN 196 CITIES, BY POPULATION GROUPS, 1935

Extent of Restoration	Distribution of Cities by Population Groups			Total Number Cities Per Cent	
	10,000 and Over	5,000 to 10,000	1,000 to 5,000		
Full	3	6	7	16	8.2
Partial	21	21	59	101	51.5
None	7	5	67	79	40.3
Total	31	32	133	196	100.0

partial restoration. Salaries in 40.3 per cent of the cities, however, had not been raised since the original reductions, although it should be noted that most of these cities are in the smaller population groups.

In general, cities below 10,000 population supplied little information on salary restorations. Among the larger cities, Houston has raised the salaries of only a few employees and these but slightly. Dallas, in December, 1934, restored completely all salaries up to \$100 a month and

those from \$100 to \$175 by 40 per cent; no restoration was made for those receiving more than \$175. San Antonio made a partial restoration in 1934 while Fort Worth had restored none up to June, 1935, although it allowed pay for one week's vacation instead of none as formerly. El Paso restored salaries from 2 to 5 per cent; Beaumont made a restoration of 6 per cent in 1934 and another of 4 per cent in 1935, while Galveston has made restorations varying from 5 to 10 per cent. Amarillo restored 10 per cent of its 35 per cent reduction; Abilene 5 per cent of a 25 per cent cut; and Lubbock half of a 20 per cent reduction. In a few cities the policy has been to restore the salaries of a few persons only. Some restorations in salaries have been made since June, 1935, although in most instances they have been small in amount and in the main have applied to only the lower salaried groups. It is probable that some time will elapse before the wage levels in all groups reach those prevailing in 1929.

The presence of some 16,000 employees in Texas cities of 1,000 population and over, whose annual remuneration amounts to approximately \$16,000,000, attests the significance of the municipal civil service in this State. Added importance attaches when it is learned that cities are finding it necessary to increase the size of their staffs and to restore some of the drastic reductions effected during the depression years. The likelihood that the municipal civil service will expand in numbers and the virtual certainty that it will command increasing sums indicate the danger of continuing to ignore the problem of personnel. To the municipal official interested in sound administration this problem is of the greatest importance. To any who may be concerned, even remotely, with urban affairs, it is important if only because of the size and cost of the municipal civil service.

CHAPTER III

COMPENSATION

Of vital concern to employer and employee alike is the matter of compensation. The municipality must see that its expenditures for personnel are translated into the services which are its reason for being. The cost of the civil service, constituting as it does the largest single item of operating expense, makes imperative a careful consideration of compensation by the employer. Likewise the employee is concerned with the amount of his stipend since it represents the extent of his ability to obtain for himself and his family most of those things which he finds desirable in life. A vital interrelationship exists, therefore, between morale and compensation. Although compensation and salary standardization are closely related, it has been deemed best to reserve the discussion of the latter problem until a later chapter.¹ Attention here will be centered primarily on a comparative study of the annual salaries of the superior officials and the important subordinate employees, and secondarily on the hitherto neglected but important practice of office combinations.

Information relating to salaries was obtained from 260 cities of 1,000 population and above, though not all replied to every question asked. The material at hand permits detailed studies to be made of the salaries of the mayor, city manager, secretary, assessor-collector, treasurer, attorney, water superintendent, engineer, fire chief, police chief, police marshal, and health officer in the cities of all population groups. In cities of 10,000 population and over the offices of public welfare director, finance officer, and park director are added. Finally four subordinate positions, namely those of firemen, patrolmen, bookkeepers-clerks, and stenographers-typists are given special attention.

¹See Chapter V.

Almost all of these offices are found in large and small cities alike, thus permitting compensation comparisons in all population groups.

The practice of conferring the duties of several positions on one officer is found to some extent in almost every city, although it is primarily a characteristic of the smaller municipality. In view of the prevalence of this practice it will be profitable to analyze the various combinations of offices held by some of the more important administrative officers. This process will occasion some duplication in the instances of a few offices. A frequent combination, for example, is that of secretary and assessor-collector. In order that a complete picture may be presented, the number of secretaries who are also assessors-collectors will be shown under the office of secretary, and when the office of assessor-collector is reached, the number of cities in which the secretary serves in this capacity will be repeated. These few duplications are clearly indicated.

The tables which follow present certain information relating to the salaries paid by the cities in the several population ranges. In the construction of these tables no salary was included more than once. The office selected for emphasis for salary tabulation purposes was determined on the basis of the duties involved, its place in the governmental structure, or the frequency with which it is found in the cities. To instance, as regards the combination of secretary and assessor-collector, an analysis of the duties and general prominence of these positions shows that the secretary is the more important; hence the salary for this combination is listed under that post.

MAYOR

Although the mayor is regarded as primarily a policy forming officer, he discharges certain duties of an administrative nature which are sufficiently important to justify a consideration of his office here. Information relating to the salaries of mayors was obtained from 245 cities, only 15 per cent of which pay a salary of \$1,000 or over, a sum

which is totally inadequate for any person who gives more than casual attention to the office. Only 3 of the 245 mayors hold other offices; in each instance the combined office is that of fire chief.

Of the 245 mayors, 20 per cent receive no compensation while 3 per cent are paid on a per diem basis. Over 36 per cent of the salaries in the 2,500 to 5,000 group and 72 per cent of those in the 1,000 to 2,500 group fall below \$200. Contrary to what might be expected, the salaries are not higher in the cities of 10,000 and over. Only six of a total of thirty-two mayors in cities of 10,000 and more receive a salary exceeding \$2,400, and three of these are municipalities of 100,000 population and above. In this same group (cities of 10,000 population and over), 21.8 per cent receive no compensation.

One of the most striking facts concerning the compensation of mayors relates to the extreme salary ranges found in the several population groups, as shown in Table XI. It will be noted that the three population groups below 10,000 have a minimum salary of \$1 per year. Low minimum salaries also are found in the cities in the population groups of 10,000 and above. It is evident that the office of mayor in many cities is an honorary position so far as compensa-

TABLE XI

MAXIMUM AND MINIMUM ANNUAL SALARIES OF MAYORS OF 189
CITIES, BY POPULATION GROUPS, 1935

Population Group	Number of Cities	Salary	
		Maximum	Minimum
100,000 and Over	5	\$7,500	\$520
40,000 to 100,000	4	2,250	300
10,000 to 40,000	16	3,600	60
5,000 to 10,000	32	2,700	1
2,500 to 5,000	44	1,200	1
1,000 to 2,500	88	1,800	1

tion is concerned. Particularly is this true in council-manager cities. Of a total of sixteen manager cities between 10,000 and 100,000 population, seven pay no compensation and in the remaining nine the average salary is \$500. In the fifteen manager cities between 2,500 and

10,000 population the average salary is \$192. The presence of a manager in a Texas city appears, therefore, to effect a material reduction of the mayor's compensation.

A general view of the compensation of mayors shows that in only a few of the larger municipalities does that position carry a salary sufficient to compensate an individual on a full-time basis. If the practice in Texas cities of paying a limited stipend indicates a tendency to relieve the mayor of the duties of actual administration, then it may be said to be significant, since the best interests of the city are served if the mayor is confined to the task of policy formulation, leaving to the manager or the department heads the functions of administration.

CITY MANAGER

Although only 40 of the 260 cities have a city manager, this office has been selected for consideration in second place because of its primary position in the municipal administration.² Of the total of forty cities, twenty-three confer the duties of no additional position on the manager, while seventeen impose various other obligations, as shown in Table XII. The fact that most of these combinations include such finance offices as secretary, assessor-collector, and treasurer, indicates that the manager in the smaller city performs directly most of the financial functions. It should also be noted that while the managers in several of the smaller municipalities are not given the duties of additional positions, they do in many instances serve in other capacities, the size of the city rendering unnecessary the creation of formal posts. Only in the cities of 40,000 and above does the manager have a staff large enough to

²The list of council-manager cities compiled by the International City Managers' Association contains only thirty-seven Texas cities. The three city manager cities included in the tabulation which are not on the approved list are small municipalities and their inclusion does not invalidate the conclusions reached. *The Municipal Year Book, 1936* (International City Managers' Association), pp. 242-243.

enable him to concentrate on the duties of the manager's office alone, and even in some of these cities combinations are discovered.

TABLE XII

COMBINATIONS OF OFFICES HELD BY CITY MANAGERS OF FORTY CITIES,
BY POPULATION GROUPS, 1935

Offices Held	Distribution of Cities by Population Groups						Total Cities
	100,000 and Over	40,000 to 100,000	10,000 to 40,000	5,000 to 10,000	2,500 to 5,000	1,000 to 2,500	
Manager alone	2	4	8	6	3	---	23
Manager and Secretary, Assessor-Collector, Treasurer	---	---	---	1	3	1	5
Either Secretary, Assessor, Collector, or a combination of these	---	---	---	3	1	1	5
Engineer or Water Superintendent	---	2	2	---	1	---	5
Others	---	---	---	1	---	1	2
Total	2	6	10	11	8	3	40

A consideration of the annual salaries of the managers shows that 50 per cent are over \$3,000 while 37.5 per cent exceed \$3,600. The average salaries of the city managers, presented in Table XIII, indicate the importance of this office, since this official's compensation is comparatively high. A definite relationship between the size of the city and the average salary is indicated, with the increase following the population growth. A comparison of salaries of Texas city managers with those of the nation shows that

TABLE XIII

MAXIMUM, MINIMUM, AND AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARIES OF CITY
MANAGERS OF FORTY CITIES, BY POPULATION GROUPS, 1935

Population Group	Number of Cities	Salary		
		Maximum	Minimum	Average
100,000 and Over	2	\$10,000	\$10,000	\$10,000
40,000 to 100,000	6	5,400	3,600	4,595
10,000 to 40,000	10	4,500	1,800	3,420
5,000 to 10,000	11	4,200	1,350	2,468
2,500 to 5,000	8	3,300	1,200	2,145
1,000 to 2,500	3	2,000	1,500	1,707

in general the Texas salaries are lower, although the employment of different population ranges by the International City Managers' Association makes a definite comparison impossible.³ There appears to be no definite trend in the salaries of managers serving as such exclusively and those acting in combination with other offices, the average salaries of managers serving alone being higher in the 40,000 to 100,000 and 5,000 to 10,000, and lower in the 10,000 to 40,000 and 2,500 to 5,000 population groups.

SECRETARY

With the exception of the largest cities and those employing a city manager, the secretary is perhaps the most important single municipal officer in the State. This is due primarily to the scope of his activities, which in the smaller municipality embrace practically all the financial functions and often such additional duties as those of water superintendent or engineer. The practice of multiplying the duties of the secretary is state-wide, with the result that in the cities of the lower population groups this official performs many of the functions ordinarily vested in a manager.

Information on the offices held by the secretary was obtained from 244 cities, as indicated in Table XIV. Only 51 of the 244 city secretaries hold that office alone; the remaining 193 have assumed the duties of from one to three additional posts. These combinations, it will be noted, are primarily financial in character, including in most instances the assessor-collector. Of a total of 193 city secretaries who occupy additional positions, 175, or 91 per cent, assess and collect taxes. The size of the city bears a definite relationship to the combinations effected, as shown by the fact that while 80 per cent of the secretaries in cities of 100,000 and over hold that office alone, the percentages decline until in the smallest population group only 16 per cent of the secretaries exercise the duties of no other office.

³*City Managers' News Letter*, Vol. XII, No. 16 (August 15, 1935)

A fixed annual compensation is the usual method employed to remunerate secretaries. Out of a total of 244 secretaries, all but 12 are paid annual salaries; of these, 8 receive salaries and fees, 2 are paid by fees alone, and 2 draw no compensation. A salary of \$1,200 or above is paid 41

TABLE XIV

COMBINATIONS OF OFFICES HELD BY CITY SECRETARIES OF 244 CITIES,
BY POPULATION GROUPS, 1935

Offices Held	Distribution of Cities by Population Groups						Total Cities
	100,000 and Over	40,000 to 100,000	10,000 to 40,000	5,000 to 10,000	2,500 to 5,000	1,000 to 2,500	
Secretary alone	4	5	8	6	8	20	51
Secretary and Assessor - Collector, Treasurer	---	---	2	14	24	52	92
Assessor-Collector	---	---	2	10	10	32	54
Treasurer	1	1	3	2	3	3	13
Assessor - Collector, Treasurer, Water Superintendent	---	---	---	---	1	8	9
Assessor - Collector, Water Superintendent	---	---	1	2	1	4	8
Assessor - Collector, Attorney	---	---	---	1	1	3	5
Assessor - Collector, Treasurer, Finance Officer	---	---	3	---	---	---	3
Finance Officer	---	1	1	---	---	---	2
Assessor - Collector, Marshal	---	---	---	---	---	2	2
Attorney	---	---	---	---	1	1	2
Other Offices	---	---	---	---	---	3	3
Total	5	7	20	35	49	128	244

per cent of the secretaries, and 60 per cent of the salaries fall between \$800 and \$1,999, which marks this office as a full-time position in most municipalities. A definite relationship between the size of the municipality and the average salary of the secretary is shown in Table XV, where the range in average salaries is from \$3,088 to \$953.⁴ Only in the lowest population group does the average salary for

⁴Despite the extreme salary range, average salaries have been presented, since they are fairly typical in each population group.

this position fall below \$1,400. Whether the salaries of city secretaries are considered generally or according to an average, the major conclusion as to the general importance of the position remains the same.

TABLE XV

MAXIMUM, MINIMUM, AND AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARIES OF CITY SECRETARIES OF 232 CITIES, BY POPULATION GROUPS, 1935

Population Group	Number of Cities	Salary		
		Maximum	Minimum	Average
100,000 and Over	5	\$3,300	\$2,700	\$3,088
40,000 to 100,000	7	3,240	1,800	2,419
10,000 to 40,000	20	4,800	960	2,140
5,000 to 10,000	35	3,600	480	1,831
2,500 to 5,000	47	3,363	100	1,460
1,000 to 2,500	118	2,460	15	953

The duties of the secretary in the larger cities are largely routine in character but in the smaller municipalities he occupies a position of prominence. If this post were exempt from the influence of the traditional short term and rotation in office, it is not improbable that in the smaller cities it would evolve into a position hardly distinguishable from that of manager. The office of secretary may yet furnish the means whereby sound administrative practices can be introduced into the small city.

ASSESSOR-COLLECTOR

The general practice in Texas is to combine the duties of tax assessing and collecting in one office, although five cities separate these functions. The assessor-collector serves in this position alone in only a few cities, since ordinarily this post is combined with that of secretary. This is shown in detail in Table XVI, where of a total of 260 tax offices, 67.3 per cent are combined with the post of secretary, while only 24.2 per cent of the assessors-collectors hold no other position.

Of the total of seventy-three assessors-collectors whose salaries were not included with those of the secretary,

manager, or mayor,⁵ fifteen are paid by fees alone, leaving only fifty-eight to receive a stated stipend. Of the assessors-collectors receiving salaries, 66 per cent are paid a com-

TABLE XVI

COMBINATIONS OF OFFICES HELD BY ASSESSORS-COLLECTORS OF 255
CITIES, BY POPULATION GROUPS, 1935

Offices Held*	Distribution of Cities by Population Groups						Total Cities
	100,000 and Over	40,000 to 100,000	10,000 to 40,000	5,000 to 10,000	2,500 to 5,000	1,000 to 2,500	
Assessor - Collector alone† -----	5	8	14	7	11	18	63
Assessor - Collector and Marshal or Police Chief -----	---	---	---	---	3	7	10
Secretary‡ -----	---	---	8	27	37	103	175
Manager -----	---	---	---	5	3	3	11
Mayor -----	---	---	---	---	---	1	1
Total -----	5	8	22	39	54	132	260§

*The office combinations of assessor-collector and secretary, manager, and mayor have been considered previously in the discussions of these offices.

†This class includes two assessors and four collectors.

‡This class includes four secretaries serving as collector only.

§This total includes only 255 cities, since five cities have created separate offices for assessing and collecting.

pensation amounting to \$1,200 or above. The average salaries of these assessors-collectors, divided according to population groups, are shown in Table XVII. The amount of the average salary in each instance indicates that this office

TABLE XVII

MAXIMUM, MINIMUM, AND AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARIES OF ASSESSORS-
COLLECTORS OF FIFTY-EIGHT CITIES, BY POPULATION GROUPS, 1935

Population Group	Number of Cities	Salary		
		Maximum	Minimum	Average
100,000 and Over	5	\$5,500	\$4,000	\$4,364
40,000 to 100,000	8	3,420	2,040	2,727
10,000 to 40,000	14	2,736	1,200	1,924
5,000 to 10,000	5	3,000	960	1,868
2,500 to 5,000	11	3,000	150	1,171
1,000 to 2,500	15	1,200	40	657

⁵These seventy-three posts include sixty-three assessors-collectors serving alone and ten which have been combined with the police chief or marshal.

is regarded as of some importance, although the small stipend practically guarantees no more than a modicum of technical ability. The failure to pay an adequate salary, which results in placing this important function in lay hands, undoubtedly is partially responsible for the present deficiencies of administration and serves to buttress the arguments of those who would combine the several assessing and collecting agencies of the county under a single authority.

TREASURER

The office of treasurer has declined markedly from its former high position of prominence. The primary function of this official is that of serving as custodian and disbursing officer of the city's funds, which requires little work except in the largest municipalities. A study of the 234 treasurers reveals that 44 per cent act in this capacity alone while 53 per cent are combined with the position of secretary. Data as to the salary of the treasurer were obtained from 60 of the 104 cities which reported a treasurer serving alone. Of these sixty cities, 16.7 per cent stated that no compensation is paid. Of the remaining fifty cities, 6 per cent pay by fees alone, and only 12 per cent pay over \$1,200. The low salary and the practice in many cities of combining this position and that of city secretary, are indicative of the relatively unimportant position of the treasurer in the municipal structure.

FINANCE OFFICER

The position of finance officer is found only in the larger cities of Texas. The duties of this office ordinarily involve the handling of financial records, the preparation of budgets, the compilation of financial reports, and general accounting functions. In cities below 10,000 population these duties are generally performed by the secretary, or in a few instances, by the manager. A total of thirteen cities of

10,000 population and over reported a finance officer serving as a full-time official.⁶ The title of the finance officer is generally that of "auditor," although in some instances the term "controller" or "director of finance" is found. The salaries of the finance officers in the five cities of 100,000 and over range from \$3,000 to \$4,800, with an average of \$3,739; in the cities from 40,000 to 100,000 the range is from \$2,640 to \$3,600, and the average \$2,898; and in the 10,000 to 40,000 group the range is from \$1,500 to \$3,780, and the average \$2,520. The restriction of this position to the larger cities indicates the specialization of the finance problem as the city increases in size. While the number of separate finance officers is small, it is not too much to say that next to the mayor and manager this post is the most important in the larger cities.

CITY ATTORNEY

The office of city attorney is a full-time position in only the largest cities, since the smaller municipalities have only an occasional need for legal services. Of a total of 141 cities supplying information as to the compensation of their attorneys, 8 per cent reported no remuneration and 23 per cent pay on a fee basis. Only thirty cities pay over \$1,000 per year and all but six of these are of 10,000 population and over. The salary range of city attorneys in the cities of 100,000 and over is \$6,200 to \$3,300; in the cities from 40,000 to 100,000 it is \$4,200 to \$2,375. In the cities below 40,000 the salaries paid are so low as to indicate the relative unimportance of this position. Due to the professional nature of the attorney's duties, only seven cities indicated a combination of this with any other office, and in all instances the post added is that of secretary.

POLICE CHIEF AND MARSHAL

The head of the police department is the police chief or marshal, who ordinarily is a full-time officer. Police chiefs

⁶Three of these officers are in the 10,000 to 40,000 group, five in the 40,000 to 100,000 group, and five in the 100,000 and over group.

are employed without exception in cities of 10,000 population and over, while either or both offices (police chief and marshal) are found in cities below that size. In seventeen instances the offices of chief and marshal are found in the same city, a situation giving rise to some question since it seems to indicate a dual leadership in the department. This condition may be explained by noting that cities organized under general law are required to employ a marshal. In some instances the electorate selects a police marshal who serves to fulfill the requirements of the law, and the mayor or council appoints a police chief who performs most of the duties relating to law enforcement. Combinations with these offices are rare and are found in only twenty-four cities, the most widely used combinations being with the positions of assessor-collector, water superintendent, and secretary.

The salaries of 230 police chiefs and marshals were obtained. Of this total all but eight are paid on a straight salary basis. The average salary for the various population groups, presented in Table XVIII, indicates that the

TABLE XVIII

MAXIMUM, MINIMUM, AND AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARIES OF POLICE
CHIEFS AND MARSHALS OF 222 CITIES, BY POPULATION
GROUPS, 1935

Population Group	Number of Cities	Salary		Average
		Maximum	Minimum	
100,000 and Over	5	\$4,000	\$2,400	\$3,236
40,000 to 100,000	7	3,480	2,280	2,790
10,000 to 40,000	20	2,400	1,200	1,891
5,000 to 10,000	42	2,856	300	1,438
2,500 to 5,000	55	1,800	12	1,030
1,000 to 2,500	93	1,560	12	673

office is a full-time position since the average stipend does not fall below \$1,000 except in the smallest population group. The salaries in the higher population ranges, however, are not as substantial as might be expected, especially when it is considered that the police department is one of the largest single employers in the city administration. The

salaries paid to police chiefs and marshals indicate a general practice of considering this office as a full-time position, but the low remuneration is a decided obstacle in the way of the development of an effective police force.

FIRE CHIEF

A total of 167 cities reported on the fire chief, of which only 23 combine this office with some other, the most frequent union being with the post of police chief or water superintendent. Only 48.5 per cent of the cities pay a stated salary to the fire chief. He receives no compensation in 48.5 per cent of the cities and is paid a certain amount for each fire alarm answered in 3 per cent. The salary ranges by population groups are (1) 100,000 and over, \$4,000–\$2,400, (2) 40,000 to 100,000, \$3,276–\$1,800, (3) 10,000 to 40,000, \$2,400–\$1,200, (4) 5,000 to 10,000, \$1,800–\$180, (5) 2,500 to 5,000, \$1,350–\$25, and (6) 1,000 to 2,500, \$1,200–\$1. Only in cities of 10,000 and above does the salary become sufficient to justify the employment of a full-time person. In the smaller cities the departments are almost entirely volunteer in character, with few or no full-time, paid positions.

WATER SUPERINTENDENT AND ENGINEER

The two positions in the municipal service which demand some engineering ability are those of water superintendent and engineer. The office of water superintendent is combined in several instances, usually with that of secretary, marshal, or manager. A total of 176 cities reported the salaries of their water superintendents. The salary ranges in the several population groups are (1) 100,000 and over, \$6,000–\$2,400, (2) 40,000 to 100,000, \$4,800–\$2,640, (3) 10,000 to 40,000, \$2,700–\$1,560, (4) 5,000 to 10,000, \$3,600–\$1,080, (5) 2,500 to 5,000, \$2,400–\$120, and (6) 1,000 to 2,500, \$2,880–\$150. The high salaries paid in some instances are due in part to the technical training required, a situation not prevailing in the instances of many other positions.

The employment of a city engineer was reported by fifty-six municipalities. Of these, 16 per cent use fees or commissions as the means of remuneration, while the remainder pay an annual compensation. The salary ranges in the various population groups are (1) 100,000 and over, \$6,000–\$2,700, (2) 40,000 to 100,000, \$3,600–\$2,400, (3) 10,000 to 40,000, \$3,000–\$1,320, (4) 5,000 to 10,000, \$4,200–\$600, (5) 2,500 to 5,000, \$2,100–\$600, and (6) 1,000 to 2,500, \$1,440–\$75. The high salaries paid in the larger cities mark this office as one of some importance.

HEALTH OFFICER

Health officers were reported by 183 cities, of which 31 per cent pay no compensation, and 9 per cent pay by fees, 37 per cent by a salary below \$400, and 23 per cent by a salary exceeding this sum. The salary range for the cities of 100,000 and over is \$5,004–\$3,960; for the population group 40,000 to 100,000, it is \$3,600–\$1,500. The remaining salaries are low and indicate a part-time position. The duties of the health officer are such as to occasion few combinations, although five cities have chosen to unite this office with that of director of public welfare, while in one city the health director serves as the head of a city-county health unit.

DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC WELFARE

A director of public welfare is found in only a few of the larger cities. Dallas and Austin have created welfare departments headed by directors receiving salaries of \$2,376 and \$3,000 respectively. Amarillo and Pampa each has a director of public welfare who is appointed by a welfare board. The city manager of Sherman serves in the additional capacity of welfare director and in five cities the duties of this position have been conferred on the health officer.

PARK DIRECTOR

The position of park director is found in all five cities of 100,000 population and over, in four cities from 40,000 to 100,000, and in eight from 10,000 to 40,000. Salary data were obtained for eleven of these seventeen offices. The annual stipend of park directors in the five major cities (those of 100,000 and over) ranges from \$4,000 to \$2,700 and averages \$3,466. Two salaries of \$2,400 and \$1,500 are found in the 40,000 to 100,000 group. The four park directors in the cities in the 10,000 to 40,000 population group receive compensations ranging from \$2,160 to \$540, which average \$1,425.

SUBORDINATE EMPLOYEES

Although the largest salaries are paid to the higher administrative officials, the bulk of the civil service is composed of subordinate employees whose total compensation constitutes a large portion of the entire outlay for personnel. The positions themselves, however, defy classification, since the absence of formal classification schemes in most of the cities has resulted in the creation of new positions without any effort to relate them to others similar in name or functions. Two persons may have the same title and receive the same salary, but perform entirely different duties. The four classes included in this salary survey are fireman, patrolman, bookkeeper-clerk, and stenographer-typist. The bookkeeper-clerk class includes positions the duties of which are sufficiently advanced to justify some work of a responsible nature. The stenographer-typist class constitutes all those engaged in some sort of stenographic work.

Table XIX presents data on the compensation of these groups of subordinate employees in cities of 10,000 and over. The table shows the average of the highest and the average of the lowest salaries paid in each of the three population groups. The compensation of firemen and patrolmen appears to be fairly stable even as among the three population groups, while extreme ranges are found

as regards the other two positions. There is a tendency for the larger cities to pay higher salaries, although this is not as pronounced as might be expected. One explanation of the extreme salary ranges for the classes of bookkeeper-clerk and stenographer-typist is the almost universal lack of classification and salary standardization.

TABLE XIX

ANNUAL SALARIES OF FOUR SUBORDINATE POSITIONS IN THIRTY-TWO CITIES, BY POPULATION GROUPS, 1935

Position	Population Groups					
	100,000 and Over Average of Highest Salaries	Average of Lowest Salaries	40,000 to 100,000 Average of Highest Salaries	Average of Lowest Salaries	10,000 to 40,000 Average of Highest Salaries	Average of Lowest Salaries
Fireman	\$1,420	\$1,208	\$1,369	\$1,242	\$1,235	\$1,059
Patrolman	1,415	1,177	1,408	1,331	1,303	1,183
Bookkeeper- Clerk	1,962	784	1,523	1,263	1,230	1,013
Stenog- rapher- Typist	1,390	912	1,404	943	1,012	868

Little uniformity is found in the matter of compensation. A considerable number of officials (approximately 200 in the present survey), chief among whom are the fire chief, health officer, treasurer, and attorney, serve without compensation. Fees are employed to compensate a few officials (less than 100), foremost among them the attorney, health officer, and assessor-collector. The professional character of the post of city manager results in the receipt by that office of the highest average annual salary. Following in descending order are the engineer, assessor-collector, water superintendent, secretary, fire chief, peace officer, attorney, health officer, and mayor.

Fully as important as the salary of a particular official is the number of offices held. Of particular significance is the tendency in many cities to combine the offices of secretary, assessor-collector, and treasurer, which indicates an effort to concentrate the several financial agencies of the government in the hands of one individual or department. These combinations are of special significance in

the smaller city since they not only indicate a tendency toward office combination, but also show how certain financial duties must be performed by every government regardless of its size. The practice of placing most of these duties in the hands of the city secretary makes this official the real head of the municipal administration in all save the largest cities and those employing a manager. Future movements designed to improve the civil service of the smaller cities must not fail to take into account the focal position of this office.

PART II
PERSONNEL PRACTICES

CHAPTER IV

THE PERSONNEL AGENCY

Despite the cavalier consideration which has characterized the treatment of personnel in many governmental jurisdictions, there has developed a technique of personnel management which no longer permits of being successfully administered by an amateur. While our previous survey of the extent and cost of municipal personnel in this State (Part I) is important in that it constitutes the only method of gaining a proper perspective of the personnel problem, no attempt was made there to consider the practices which lead to an effective civil service administration. A study of these practices involves some attention to the personnel agency, classification, salary standardization, induction into the service, training, in-service problems, and retirement. Our purpose will be to consider the prevailing practices in the handling of these matters, noting carefully the position of the Texas city, and making such recommendations and suggestions as may appear in order. Under such a procedure, a considerable portion of the discussion will pertain to the larger cities. It should be remembered, however, that large and small cities differ chiefly in degree. Modifications, with the needs of the smaller cities in mind, will be suggested at the points where they seem necessary.

Any discussion of the operation of a governmental agency properly begins with the type of administrator employed. In the instant case there is the question as to the type of personnel agency to be used. It is true that the existence of a formal personnel organization is not an absolute prerequisite for the accomplishment of desirable personnel objectives. The officials of cities where there is no immediate prospect of organizing a formal personnel system might well inaugurate recruitment procedures based on merit; an in-service training program could be sponsored; the handling of sick leaves and vacations could be rescued from the

rule-of-thumb treatment now accorded it; retirement policies could be formulated and made effective; and a definite procedure for the solution of discipline problems could be charted. Certain features of the merit system, then, do not require the installation of a formal system to secure their partial realization. It is clearly advisable, however, for all cities to provide some form of personnel agency, since only through this medium can the responsibility for a personnel program be definitely located.

If it be granted that the establishment of a personnel agency is an important aid to the realization of an effective scheme of personnel administration, the question arises as to its structure. To be sure, the legislative body will continue to fix rates of pay, the chief administrative officer will proceed, as in the past, to make promotions (with certain restrictions) and decide questions of discipline, and the finance officer will have charge of preparing pay rolls and disbursing salaries. There will arise, however, a myriad of technical questions which cannot be handled satisfactorily by any of the regular departments. In order to guarantee uniform policies and similar standards, a centralized personnel administration directed by a qualified personnel administrator and assisted by a special staff is required. A personnel system which is disintegrated to the point of departmental independence can result only in the complete absence of those uniform standards which are clearly required if an equitable system is to be established.

Municipal personnel systems in the United States have been established and administered according to two general plans: One of these comprehends a state personnel agency serving all the cities of the state; the other permits the inauguration of a separate personnel agency in each city.¹ The method providing for state control exists in two forms, as exemplified by the practices in Massachusetts and New Jersey. In Massachusetts all cities are placed under the

¹William C. Beyer, "Municipal Civil Service in the United States," in *Problems of the American Public Service* (New York, 1935), pp. 90-92.

control of the state personnel system; in New Jersey a city may enter only after popular approval has been secured through a local referendum. The plan for local control finds expression in four forms. Under the system as it operates in New York and Ohio, the municipal agencies are subject to the supervision of the state personnel division. In California the city may contract with the personnel agency of the state, county, or another city to perform certain functions of personnel administration. The Michigan Municipal League maintains a personnel staff which is available for use by the cities of that state in the installation and operation of civil service programs. In all other states, including Texas, the local agency proceeds without any external supervision or assistance.

The type of personnel organization which a city should have depends upon a number of factors, and there appears to be no one kind which can be assigned categorically to a class of municipalities. Some of the factors which will operate to shape the character of the personnel agency are the size of the city, the governmental organization, and the official and public attitudes toward the municipal personnel. It must be kept in mind also that the personnel problems of the smaller cities are of the same comparative importance as those in the larger jurisdictions, although the means of solution are likely to be different.² Whatever type of agency is finally installed, it must be characterized by a sincere desire to develop and enforce merit principles. Extraneous matters which are not so easily shaped and controlled will affect the chances of success regardless of the structure devised.

LEGAL BASIS

The importance of a municipal personnel system demands that it have an adequate legal foundation. Partisan attacks against the merit plan may be repelled if it rests on the

²See Maxwell A. De Voe, *The Problem of Effective Personnel Administration in Small City Government* (Institute of Public Affairs, University of Virginia, 1936).

proper legal basis which will serve at the same time to outline the general scope of the civil service system. This assumes a special import when it is realized that the excellence of the merit system can rise no higher than the level permitted by law. Early legislation was designed to provide a defense against the spoilsmen, and hence was largely negative in character. As the emphasis shifted to a positive and constructive program, however, the older laws proved inadequate, and revisions were necessary to permit the adoption of improved procedures. These legal provisions must be drawn in such a manner as to present the general principles of a correct system, yet at the same time be possessed of sufficient flexibility to permit the agency to exercise the powers regarded as essential to the operation of a comprehensive civil service program.

The organizational features of the personnel system should be presented in broad outline in the charter.³ To supplement this an ordinance should be passed prescribing in greater detail for the operation of the system. With regard to the more technical matters it is the general policy to permit the agency to devise its own rules and regulations which cover the details of personnel administration. By this method the agency may, through changes in its rules, make improvements without the necessity of calling upon the council. Extensive changes should not be made without the approval of the council.

Provisions relating to personnel, varying in length and scope, are found in the charters of most Texas cities. In

³Suggested charter provisions may be found in the National Municipal League's *A Model City Charter* (New York, 1933), pp. 63-75. Proposed ordinances may be found in the National Civil Service Reform League's *Draft of a City Civil Service Law* (New York, 1931), and Report No. 3 of the League of California Municipalities, *Suggested Forms of Civil Service Ordinances* (1936). Suggestions as to rules and regulations are given in Publication No. 9 of the New York State Conference of Mayors, *Model Municipal Civil Service Rules* (Albany, 1931), and Report No. 4 of the League of California Municipalities, *Civil Service Rules and Regulations Supplementing the Suggested Forms of Civil Service Ordinances* (1936).

municipalities operating under general law the control over personnel is vested in the mayor and city council. The most complete charter provisions are discovered in cities having civil service commissions, while in most of the others charter sections are found relating to the appointment of specific officers or authorizing the chief executive to appoint and remove officials and subordinates not otherwise provided for. Provisions designed to protect subordinates from arbitrary or unwarranted removal are also frequently found. Ordinances relating to the civil service commission and providing for its establishment have been passed by the cities possessing a formal merit system and in addition each commission has exercised its privilege of formulating a code of rules and regulations which usually must receive the approval of the council before becoming effective.

JURISDICTION AND FUNCTIONS

According to general practice the jurisdiction of the personnel agency extends over the "classified" service, as distinguished from the "unclassified" positions. The classified service embraces those parts which have been formally placed under the merit system by law. The unclassified positions (also called "exempt" positions) are removed from the control of the personnel agency and are placed directly under the supervision of the legislative body or the chief administrative officers. Commonly included in the unclassified service are the elected officials, members of boards and commissions, chief administrative officers, and day laborers.

The portions of the municipal personnel included in the unclassified service in Dallas and Fort Worth are (1) the city manager and his secretary, (2) heads and assistant heads of departments, members of appointive boards, and the city secretary, and (3) the laboring class, including all unskilled labor.⁴ In addition, Dallas has excluded the legal

⁴*Civil Service Rules and Regulations, City of Fort Worth, Texas* (1925), Rule 4; *Rules and Regulations of the Civil Service Board, City of Dallas, Texas* (1931), Rule IV.

department, the city auditor, and the park department from the classified service, while Fort Worth has acted similarly as regards all positions in the police department above the rank of lieutenant. El Paso, by virtue of a recent charter amendment, has the largest percentage of its civil service under a personnel agency, excluding only elected officials, the city attorney and his deputies, all employees of the city-county hospital, the superintendents of the municipal golf course and airport, and doctors in the health department.⁵ Unskilled labor in El Paso is placed in the classified service, a practice followed by no other Texas city and by only a few in the nation. San Antonio has placed all members of the police and fire departments (including fire alarm operators) in the classified service.⁶

By charter provision Houston has excluded from the classified service day laborers, department heads, and chief clerks, in addition to the specific positions of attorney, engineer, tax assessor and collector, police chief, fire chief, fire marshal, purchasing agent, health officer, pathologist, and scavenger.⁷ The latest adherent to the merit system, Waco, has a classified service similar to that of Houston. By charter pronouncement the Waco classified service embraces all employees except day laborers, department heads and chief clerks of the tax, engineering, police, fire, legal, and health departments, the comptroller, the fire marshal,

⁵Section 4 of the charter amendment establishing a Civil Service Commission in El Paso, adopted April 9, 1935. The superintendents of the golf course and airport are excluded since they work on a concession arrangement. The amendment places all employees of the city-county health unit (excepting doctors) under the jurisdiction of the Commission, but a ruling of the Attorney-General stated that so long as the health unit was operated jointly by the city and county, the employees could not be made subject to the Commission. If the present arrangement is dissolved, and a city health department established, the employees of that unit automatically will become members of the classified service.

⁶*Civil Service Code of the City of San Antonio, Texas* (1932), p. 4.

⁷*Civil Service Rules and Regulations, City of Houston* (1929), p. 4.

and the members of boards appointed by the city commission.⁸ In general, then, Texas cities follow the practice of limiting the positions to be filled by examination to ministerial, clerical, and mechanical posts, though their classified services might well be expanded to embrace technical and administrative positions in view of the recent improvements in testing techniques.⁹

While the duties assigned to a personnel agency differ from city to city, a fairly satisfactory list of the functions ordinarily assigned includes:

1. Classifying positions according to functions, and suggesting adequate rates of pay in order to assure equal pay for equal work.
2. Testing applicants for positions in the administrative service, preparing eligible lists, and certifying eligible candidates for appointment.
3. Administering a service rating system.
4. Supervising the transfer and promotion of employees.
5. Handling discipline problems, including the hearing of appeals on suspensions and removals and the complaints of employees.
6. Determining the standard practice as to layoffs, re-employment, and temporary or emergency appointments.
7. Regulating hours of work, sick leaves, and vacations.
8. Coöperating with various departments in the establishment of a system of training employees after entry into the service.
9. Promoting an adequate retirement plan.
10. Improving working and environmental conditions in order to better the welfare and morale of the employees.
11. Guarding against political activities on the part of the employees.
12. Checking and certifying the pay rolls.
13. Coöperating with the fiscal authority in budget making.

⁸*Charter of the City of Waco*, Art. XXXV, Sec. 6, adopted November 19, 1935. For the present the newly established Waco Civil Service Board has decided to confine its attention to the fire and police departments.

⁹Approximately 1,200 of the Houston civil service and 500 in San Antonio are included in classified positions. Dallas has a total of 2,085 employees of which 1,077 are in the classified service. *Annual Report of the Civil Service Board, Dallas, Texas, 1934-1935*, p. 2.

14. Keeping adequate personnel records and preparing periodical reports.

15. Formulating and amending its own rules and regulations.¹⁰

Although the city council may feel that the grant of authority contained in the above list of functions constitutes a delegation of power too great to be conferred on an administrative agency, it is true that the agency will not be properly equipped to handle the personnel problem unless its scope of action is substantially that outlined. This statement is predicated on the assumption that the proper administrative relationships will be maintained, since an over-ambitious personnel agency can invade the rightful domain of the department head with a consequent unwarranted circumscription of the latter's authority and a diminution of his prestige. Certainly no such extensive powers as are outlined here should be granted unless the personnel director and his staff are selected on a merit basis.

It is self-evident that adequate appropriations are essential for the proper maintenance of the personnel agency. Too often in the past a reduction in appropriations has been one of the devices employed by the spoilsmen to subvert the merit system. It is necessary that appropriations be sufficient not only to permit the payment of compensations adequate to attract and hold competent men, but also to allow the staff to undertake as many of the fundamental personnel activities, including the important one of research, as possible. Expenditures for personnel administration often result in the reduction of personnel costs by the application of such principles as the elimination of unnecessary positions through the operation of a classification scheme. More important than the possibility of strictly monetary savings, however, is the opportunity to create a

¹⁰See Ismar Baruch, "The Place of Statutes and Regulations in Public Personnel Administration," in *Summary of the Proceedings of the Sixth Eastern States Regional Conference of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 1935*, pp. 23-24.

personnel with a vigorous morale based on the principle of equitable treatment and the application of merit.¹¹

Designed to implement the entire personnel program and serving as one of its most important aids is the record system of the personnel agency. Performing an essential service as a source of information to the administrative and executive officers, the city council, and the public, a set of complete records should be maintained by any city operating under a merit system, whether it be formal or informal. The extensiveness of the record system will depend on the extent of the classified service and the amount of authority vested in the agency, both of which will vary from city to city.

At the time of the induction of the individual into the service a record card, or "roster" card, is filled out for the permanent files. Constituting as it does the major source of information for the personal history of the individual, this card should contain the date of birth, address, telephone number, family status and dependents, title of first position with the city and all promotions with date of each, initial salary and all increases or reductions with date of each, date and nature of every disciplinary action, sick leaves and vacations, service ratings, date of termination of service, and retirement provisions. Some cities may desire to include such additional items as positions held prior to service with the city and length of residence in the city.

To supplement the roster card the city will need to install other personnel records, including the application form, records of physical examinations and other tests, and absence reports. Cities possessing a civil service commission

¹¹No general agreement has been reached as to the amount which a city should spend to assure the proper support of a personnel agency. One suggestion is to appropriate 1 per cent of the pay roll for the personnel agency. "The Report of the Special Committee on Civil Service," *National Municipal Review*, Vol. XII (August, 1923), p. 468. A recent estimate is that \$5 per employee is the minimum amount which must be spent to secure the effective operation of a personnel agency.

will need to employ additional forms and records. These include the request for certification of names from the eligible list, the certification proper, and the record of actual employment or release from employment. The roster cards in cities with a civil service commission should contain the examination grade, the date of the examinations, the ranking on the eligible list, and a record of the certification process. As a minimum the complete record system of the personnel agency should include (1) applications for positions, with letters of recommendation, (2) documents relating to the examination, with the admission cards, copies of the tests, and test papers, (3) eligible lists, (4) certification records, (5) pay roll records, and (6) the annual reports issued by the agency. A careful study of the methods of filing is needed if the material is to be available for immediate use with a minimum of effort.¹²

A review of the practice in this State shows that cities are failing to maintain adequate systems of personnel records.¹³ None of the 127 cities below 2,500 population and only 5 out of 89 cities between 2,500 and 10,000 reported the maintenance of personnel records in any form. Tyler and Sherman use the application form as their only personnel records; Abilene and Lubbock have roster cards furnished by insurance companies; and Longview has an "Employment Record" card kept in the city manager's office. Fourteen cities out of a total of twenty reporting in the 10,000 to 40,000 population group keep no personnel records.

In the cities from 40,000 to 100,000, the best records are found in Austin and Amarillo. The former has two records on "3x5" cards, one a roster card with a place on the reverse side for pay rate changes, and the second a record of services discontinued, with a place for the department

¹²See "The Files and Records of a Public Personnel Agency," *Public Personnel Studies*, Vol. III (July, 1925), pp. 190-196.

¹³For example, it was possible to obtain the ages of employees of only a few cities when such information was sought in connection with this study.

head to rate the employee. Amarillo has two forms consisting of a fairly complete "Employee's Personal Record," and an "Employee's Absentee Record," each of which is filled out by the department heads. Port Arthur has a set of roster cards, and Waco uses for this purpose the application form, which contains a brief record of service on the reverse side. Of the remaining three cities of this group, one possesses no records, while those of the other two are very incomplete and largely useless.

Application forms are used by all the civil service commissions in the five cities of 100,000 population and over. In the municipal departments not under the merit system in San Antonio, application forms are used by the tax commissioner and the mayor.¹⁴ In addition to these application forms, roster cards are kept by the water department and the Fire and Police Civil Service Board. Roster cards are maintained by the Houston Civil Service Commission for all employees, by the police department in Fort Worth, and by the fire and police departments in El Paso. The files of the Fort Worth Civil Service Board contain some personnel data in addition to the efficiency records.

The most extensive and complete set of personnel records is found in Dallas. The forms employed include the departmental request for certification, employment or release of labor, notices of accident and illness, employee record, physical examination, and monthly personnel report.¹⁵ The Civil Service Board maintains a separate file for each employee under its jurisdiction. In this file are kept certain records which include the application, examination papers, efficiency records, request for certification, and record of appointment. Additional records are maintained by the assistant director of finance, who serves as director of personnel, consisting of certification forms, records of appointment to or release from positions, notices of absences,

¹⁴The mayor maintains a supplementary triplicate set of "3x5" cards; one set is filed alphabetically by name of the applicant, the second, by type of work, and the third, by city precincts.

¹⁵*Personnel Regulations, City of Dallas, Texas* (1933).

records of suspensions, and monthly personnel reports. The maintenance of separate records in several of the departments is facilitated by the practice of filling out some of the forms in duplicate.

In order that its activities may be properly understood, the personnel agency should make periodic reports of its activities for the use and information of the administrative officers, the council, the employees, and the public. These statements should be brought together in an annual report summarizing the activities for the year. Among those matters which might be included, with some graphic illustrations, are the number of applicants, examinations given and number of persons failing and passing, appointments, separations from the service, number in the classified and unclassified services, and comparisons with the activities of former years.¹⁶ To supplement this statistical information there should be a discussion of the activities of the agency in the development of new techniques, as for example in classification and examinations, together with suggestions for improvements. In order to satisfy the divergent uses made of the annual report by the council and administrative officers and the general public, two reports might be prepared. The report designed for the council and administrative officers should include a complete and detailed account of the technical activities of the personnel agency. The public report should be couched in lay terminology and prepared for the purpose of acquainting the electorate with the work of the agency and the rôle it plays in the city's government.

The importance of the annual report is recognized only in part by the personnel agencies in this State. No reports have been issued in recent years by the civil service commissions of Houston and Fort Worth or by the City Fire and Police Civil Service Commission of El Paso. Since its inception the San Antonio Fire and Police Civil Service

¹⁶These suggested items are not exhaustive and may be expanded to embrace others of equal importance.

Board has prepared a typed report which covers the essential points although it is not available for public distribution. The new Civil Service Commission of El Paso prepared a detailed mimeographed report of its activities for 1935, and this should become a regular practice. The most thorough annual report of any civil service commission is that of Dallas, which is mimeographed and made available for public distribution. A few pages of explanatory material on the work of the Board, including recommendations for improvement, a list of appointments, promotions, and separations by positions, an account of the expenditures of the Board, and a table comparing statistics on examinations, appointments, and separations from the service for a three-year period form the contents of the report.

ORGANIZATION

Personnel agencies in the United States offer a great variety in form and organization, and there is no general agreement as to which is the best. The most common type in cities is an independent civil service commission composed of three members appointed by the mayor alone or jointly by the mayor and council. Based on the federal model, this scheme of organization was adopted by municipalities and states when the movement for the merit system reached these lower levels of government. Overlapping terms of office and bi-partisan representation were features designed especially to offer a defense against the encroachments of the spoilsmen. The proponents of the board system defend it as offering protection against arbitrary removal of employees, allowing continuity of policy, making easy the expression of public opinion, and placing the technical work in the hands of a full-time secretary.

Considerable dissatisfaction has developed in recent years with the independent board as a personnel agency. While measurable advances have been made under its leadership in combating spoils in many jurisdictions, yet the appointment of partisan-minded men as commissioners has often served to continue in effect the spoils system. The efforts

of commissioners sympathetic with the merit plan are often defeated by spoilsmen in positions of higher authority. Some commissioners evidence a desire to control the minute details of technical administration, while others regard themselves as protectors of the employees and insist on retaining civil servants who should be dismissed. A city manager in a large Texas city reported that the chief defect of the merit system was that it prevented the dismissal of inefficient workers; the feeling that they could not be discharged tended to lower the caliber of work of the subordinate employees. This attitude is common among city managers who, while favorable toward the merit system, frequently do not support the independent board as the proper form of personnel agency because of former unhappy experiences. They hold that they cannot be responsible for the performance of the city's services unless they have close supervision over the personnel organization.¹⁷

Several factors have inspired the movement for the abandonment of the commission type of personnel agency. There is a general tendency in public administration toward integrating control by replacing boards and commissions with a single officer responsible to the chief executive. The increasingly technical character of personnel administration has led to the substitution of a constructive emphasis for the former negative aspect. It is now believed by many that, in the interest of good management, the personnel division should serve principally as a staff agency to assist the administrative officers, and therefore should be closely coordinated with the chief executive instead of assuming an independent and aloof position. The close interrelationship between personnel and finance, as exemplified by classification, salary standardization, pensions, and pay roll procedure, indicates the need for a direct connection with the central staff activities. The location of the personnel

¹⁷See the testimony of Mr. Clarence E. Ridley, Executive Director, International City Managers' Association, before the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel, *Minutes of Evidence* (New York, 1935), p. 234.

division in the finance department permits a better co-ordination of staff functions, leads to a better understanding of the financial requirements of the personnel system by those who hold the purse strings, and induces a better coöperation of the line departments because of the strategic position of finance in the administrative organization.

The actual form which the personnel agency should take is still a matter of conjecture, since various types of organization are employed with success. Besides the prevailing type (the commission), some five others are recognized. These consist of (1) an appointed bi-partisan commission with one full-time member and two associate part-time members, (2) an appointed commission with a full-time personnel officer serving as the executive officer of the board, (3) a commission consisting of one person selected by competitive tests, (4) an appointed commission consisting of one person, and (5) a commission composed of one full-time executive member selected by competitive tests and two appointed associate members.¹⁸ The National Municipal League recommends the continuation of the board as an agency for rule making, hearing appeals, and conducting investigations, and the appointment of a personnel director by the manager.¹⁹ It is suggested that the board be composed of the personnel director and two associate members, one appointed by the manager and one by the council, and that it have for its duty the hearing of appeals from discharged or disciplined employees. For smaller cities a single

¹⁸Oliver C. Short, *The Merit System* (Baltimore, 1928), pp. 18-25. More extended discussions of the structure and operation of personnel agencies may be found in William C. Beyer, *op. cit.*, pp. 92-100; John M. Pfiffner, *Public Administration* (New York, 1935), pp. 154-162; and William E. Mosher and J. Donald Kingsley, *Public Personnel Administration* (New York, 1936), pp. 55-100. The League of California Municipalities, in its personnel program, recommends that smaller cities appoint a personnel clerk or director and select a board of review to hear appeals from orders of discharge by administrative officials. See its Report No. 3, *Suggested Forms of Civil Service Ordinances*, pp. 4-6.

¹⁹National Municipal League, *A Model City Charter*, pp. 63-68.

personnel officer attached directly to the manager's office is proposed.

Under the single executive type of organization the board is eliminated and the director is appointed by and responsible to the chief administrative officer. The advantages of this arrangement are the concentration of responsibility upon a single, well-trained person, the coördination of personnel administration with the work of other departments, and the facilitation of prompt decisions. Disadvantages appear in the possibility of an adverse public opinion due to the concentration of power in one individual, and in the chance that a strong executive may control the personnel director and reinstall the spoils system.²⁰ In St. Paul the elected comptroller serves as ex officio personnel commissioner. Memphis recently provided for a department of personnel and efficiency headed by a single personnel director appointed by the mayor and city commissioners.²¹ This type of agency was suggested as one of three alternative plans by the National Civil Service Reform League,²² and by the recent report on the merit system in Illinois.²³ It also has the support of other authorities.²⁴

²⁰For a comparison of two municipal personnel agencies which represent the traditional and new viewpoints, see Maxwell A. De Voe, "Personnel Programs in Two Manager Cities," *Public Management*, Vol. XVIII (July, 1936), pp. 195-200.

²¹*Civil Service Assembly News Letter*, Vol. I (July, 1935), p. 2.

²²*Draft of a City Civil Service Law*, Sec. I-b.

²³E. M. Martin, Joseph Pois, and Lyman S. Moore, *The Merit System in Illinois* (Chicago, 1935). It is recommended (p. 9) "That a director of personnel replace the existing archaic commission form as the civil service authority. . . . Civil service commissions, if retained, should be confined to the quasi-judicial function of hearing disciplinary cases and the quasi-legislative function of formulating rules and regulations."

²⁴See Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel, *Minutes of Evidence*: testimony of Mr. H. Eliot Kaplan, Secretary, National Civil Service Reform League, p. 206; Mr. Oliver C. Short, then Employment Commissioner, State of Maryland, pp. 99-100; Mr. Harold W. Dodds, President of Princeton University, p. 131; and Mr. Marshall E. Dimock, Associate Professor of Public Administration, University of Chicago, p. 275.

A number of suggestions have been made for the utilization of competitive examinations for selecting the personnel director. While this practice is not extensive, it appears to be a sound one, with the weight of recognized authority behind it. One recommendation would establish a three-member commission, two of whom would be members of the classified service recruited by examinations.²⁵ Another suggestion is a three-member board, composed of an executive officer selected by competitive examinations, a second member elected by the city employees from among their number, and a third member appointed by the mayor from the administration.²⁶

The municipal civil service commissions in this State are of the independent type; the details of their organization are shown in Table XX. The bi-partisan feature is absent. The Dallas and San Antonio commissions both employ a separate, full-time secretary. The secretary of the Houston Civil Service Commission acts also as city treasurer. The chief examiner in Fort Worth, a part-time employee, holds the additional post of clerk of the corporation court. One of the captains in the El Paso fire department acts as part-time secretary of the Fire and Police Civil Service Commission of that city, while the secretary of the El Paso Civil Service Commission is the deputy city clerk, who must discharge numerous duties other than those connected with personnel. The secretaries of the Dallas and Houston commissions are assisted by full-time clerks. The chief clerk of the San Antonio commission was selected by competitive examination.

The board type of personnel agency in Texas cities has, on the whole, resulted in substantial advancements of the merit system. The present membership of the active civil service commissions embraces intelligent and representative civic leaders in the respective cities, and by and large

²⁵National Civil Service Reform League, *Draft of a City Civil Service Law*, Sec. I-a.

²⁶See Katherine A. Frederic, *Trained Personnel for Public Service* (The National League of Women Voters, 1935), p. 17.

TABLE XX
PERSONNEL AGENCIES IN TEXAS CITIES, 1936

Personnel Agency	Membership of Commission				Administrative Officer		Annual Appropriation (1935)*
	Number	Term in Years	Method of Appointment	Annual Compensation	Title	Method of Appointment	
Houston	3	2	Mayor and Council	None	Secretary	Mayor and Civil Service Commission	\$6,000
Dallas	3	2	Council	None	Secretary and Chief Examiner	Civil Service Board	5,424
San Antonio	5	5	Council	\$200	Chief Clerk	Civil Service Board	3,700
Fort Worth	3	3	Council	None	Chief Examiner	Civil Service Board	633
El Paso	3	2	Mayor and Council	None	Deputy City Clerk	Ex Officio	565
El Paso Police and Fire	3	2	Mayor and Council	None	Fire Captain	Civil Service Board	None
Waco	3	3	Council	None	Secretary	Council	-----†

*These figures are based on appropriations made at various times in 1935.

†The Waco Civil Service Board was organized in April, 1936.

they are making a conscientious effort to promote the merit system. In some cases, legal provisions limit them in the performance of essential duties. The presence of a councilman on the Houston commission is inadvisable, since he is subjected to pleas for leniency in disciplinary cases and for waivers of requirements which sometimes are difficult to resist.²⁷

Alone among the cities Dallas has seen fit to set up a personnel agency to supplement the duties of the Civil Service Board. The Board is limited to classifying positions, holding examinations and creating eligible registers for both original entrance and promotions, administering a system of service ratings, certifying pay rolls, and hearing appeals. The assistant director of finance is assigned the additional title of "Personnel Director" and his duties include those of representing the manager in all matters of personnel and discipline; securing compliance with the rules of the Civil Service Board; passing upon all departmental requests for appointment, transfer, promotion, reduction, and suspension; certifying all labor pay rolls; passing upon complaints offered by or against employees; preparing and maintaining personnel records and data; and submitting recommendations to the manager on matters reserved for his judgment.²⁸ Separate departmental personnel officers are designated in the fire and police departments, each of whom is charged with the duties of maintaining departmental personnel records, reporting the

²⁷A bill providing for the reorganization of the Houston personnel agency was passed by the State legislature in 1935 but met with a veto at the hands of the governor. It provided for a seven-member commission, three to be selected by the district judges of the county, three by the municipal classified employees, and the seventh by these six members. Detailed powers relating to examinations, certification, suspension, and removal were assigned to the commission. Two unusual features of the bill were (1) the provision for workmen's compensation under State law, and (2) the prohibition of discharge for membership in a labor union.

²⁸*Personnel Regulations, City of Dallas, Texas*, Rules 3, 4, and 12.

conduct of probationers to the chief, and hearing and investigating complaints against members of the department.²⁹ While the existence of the personnel director tends toward a disintegration of the personnel function, it has the virtue of supplying the manager with a personnel officer subject to his orders and the further merit of providing a liaison officer to bridge the gap between the civil service commission and the manager.

While it is necessary that the personnel agency be properly organized, good organization must be buttressed by the determination to follow sound practices. If the attitude of the chief executive and the community in general is favorable to the merit system, then in all likelihood it is safe to establish a system headed by a single personnel director. In those cities where the spoils tradition is still predominant, however, an independent civil service commission is probably necessary as a defense against partisan patronage. Although civil service commissions continue to be created, there is a noticeable trend in the direction of limiting the board to the determination of quasi-judicial and quasi-legislative functions; and many of the more important technical tasks are now left to the secretary and chief examiner. By this means many of the evils of the old independent civil service commission are lessened if not eliminated.

Most of the cities of Texas, however, will not be able to establish a full-time personnel agency along any of the lines previously mentioned. There is no general agreement as yet as to the size which a city should attain or the number of employees it should have in its service before establishing a full-time personnel agency.³⁰ The Model City

²⁹*Ibid.*, Rule 5; *Rules and Regulations, Police Department, City of Dallas* (1932), Rule 25.

³⁰The number of employees evidently was of no concern to one city, which has a civil service commission composed of three "high type professional men, seriously holding meetings, keeping minutes, quarreling with the Mayor and City Council, and having jurisdiction

Charter suggests a minimum of 750 employees,⁸¹ and it is probable that a municipality of 50,000 or more would be amply repaid for supporting a full-time personnel officer. San Antonio saw fit to establish a commission with a full-time clerk for its police and fire forces of 500 members. A city without a central personnel agency is often pursuing the more expensive practice, since the department head must handle his personnel problems out of his own working time. The cost of a full-time agency should be a secondary consideration, however, since the many services which it will render may be expected to offset the expenses involved. In those cities unable to afford a full-time officer the duties of the personnel director might well be placed on the manager, secretary, or finance officer. To arouse public interest, it might be profitable to establish a civil service commission in the smaller towns, although the danger here is that the commissioners will have so little to do as to cause them to interfere in the ordinary personnel routine.

While the lack of full-time personnel agencies in Texas cities has its disheartening aspects in that it evidences a lack of interest in the general field of personnel administration, there is a bright side. Since there are only six cities possessing civil service commissions in this State, it is apparent that the field is ripe for a substantial movement forward in the next few years. Not having utilized any of the older types of personnel agencies, the future adherents to merit principles will have the opportunity to install the latest practices in the field and thereby set an example for all cities. In this respect the outlook for personnel administration in Texas cities is not altogether dark.

over the police force consisting of a Chief, a Sergeant, and four Patrolmen." Oliver C. Short, *Personnel Administration in Cities and Counties* (Institute of Public Affairs, University of Virginia, 1936), p. 7.

⁸¹National Municipal League, *A Model City Charter*, pp. 63-64.

CHAPTER V

CLASSIFICATION AND SALARY STANDARDIZATION

With the installation of the merit system, the personnel agency, if it be in the usual city, will discover a plethora of positions bearing different titles which appear to have duties generally similar in character. A parallel finding will reveal extreme differences in the rates of pay assigned positions involving similar duties and responsibilities. It becomes evident, therefore, that the introduction of order into a situation which in two important respects is chaotic is prerequisite to an intelligent recruitment program. The fulfillment of this need requires an understanding of classification and salary standardization, a discussion of which will form the subject matter of the present chapter.

I. CLASSIFICATION

Classification may be defined as the analysis of the duties of the various positions in the civil service and the grouping into different classes under the same descriptive title of all posts which are similar in their duties and responsibilities, which require the same qualifications for the successful performance of these duties, and which justify the same rate of compensation. It will be clear that the activities required of many posts are the same regardless of their departmental location. A clerk in the water department will be called upon to perform duties substantially the same as those of an employee in a similar position in the health department. Since the employees placed in a single class will have in large part the same duties, they will be selected by a common recruiting process and be paid from the same salary range. This arrangement facilitates the use of eligible employment lists, the making of appropriate job assignments, the determination of standard lines of promotion and advancement, and the payment of

the same basic compensation to all members of a single class.

A proper classification system constitutes a necessary foundation for any effective plan of personnel administration. It is inseparably related to salary standardization, furnishing, as one authority has stated, "a practical basis for arriving at compensation requirements."¹ No recruitment program worthy of the name can be administered without an arrangement of the positions into classes on the basis of the work involved. A career service presupposes a clear definition of the qualifications requisite for each position and of the promotional channels leading upward from them. Efficiency ratings are meaningless unless different bases for grading the performance of the several classes are recognized. Fairness in dismissal must rest upon a proper conception of the responsibilities connected with each position. Classification secures definite and accurate terminology, eliminates misleading titles, enables the governing authority to visualize its financial obligations in regard to personnel, and permits the adoption of policies equitable to employee and employer alike.² A proper classification scheme should result in an improved morale and consequently a more fruitful public service.³

¹A. E. Buck, *Public Budgeting* (New York, 1929), p. 539.

²"We view the classification as the basis for most of our other activities. The class title furnishes us with an understandable language by which the budget maker, the legislator, the personnel technician, the department head, the employee, and the public can all discuss positions on a common ground. . . . The class specification not only describes the employment, but the job analysis which it represents serves to guide our recruiting policy, and to define the lines of promotion." Testimony of A. E. Stockburger, Director of Finance of the State of California, in Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel, *Minutes of Evidence* (New York, 1935), p. 425.

³"When no classification system exists and there is no central agency with power to enforce it, you have inequities and inconsistencies of pay that are hard to overlook, with the result of inefficiency, confusion in personnel processes, lack of morale, and agitation of various sorts." Testimony of Ismar Baruch, Chief of the

Finally, the employment of this tool will aid the department head in the management of his unit by permitting an equitable assignment of work and by clarifying the avenues of promotion.

A classification plan, to be complete, should include all positions in the city's service. Cincinnati in 1927 made a classification of every position in the municipal service, the University of Cincinnati, and the public schools, assigned uniform titles, and grouped some 5,000 positions into about 375 classes.⁴ Classification is sometimes used in a narrow sense to refer to those positions under the jurisdiction of the personnel agency, since it has been a common practice to include these only in the formal classification plan. The positions excluded from the commission's jurisdiction are then called "unclassified" or "exempt." Unwarranted expansion of the "unclassified service" is one method by which the council may limit the jurisdiction of the personnel agency. Certainly all positions should be listed in the salary schedule, regardless of their connection with the personnel agency. The unskilled labor service is usually unclassified, with eligible lists being created simply through applications, and the personnel agency has little if any jurisdiction over it. Among Texas cities, El Paso is an exception to this rule.

Since the inception of classification came at a much later date than the merit system, it is not surprising that it has encountered formidable obstacles.⁵ The failure to realize that a classification scheme must be in a state of continuous revision in order to care for the changes in the service has caused some systems to become largely meaningless after a few years. Another difficulty is that the council often fails to standardize the salary schedule and so defeats

Personnel Classification Division of the United States Civil Service Commission, *ibid.*, p. 12.

⁴*Public Personnel Studies*, Vol. 6 (April, 1928), p. 83.

⁵William C. Beyer, "Municipal Civil Service in the United States," in *Problems of the American Public Service* (New York, 1935), pp. 119-121.

one of the main objectives of classification. At times the employees themselves oppose classification or reclassification, fearing a decrease in pay. Frequently the administrative officers hesitate to support classification, believing that the system will become too rigid and thereby prevent the assignment of new duties to subordinates. Finally, opposition to classification is voiced by the spoilsman, who foresees the elimination of sinecures in the municipal service, the occupants of which usually owe their preferred status to his efforts.

Although it would be impossible to determine the status of classification in Texas cities at the present time without a careful study of each city, the experiences of those municipalities which have classified suggest that many inequities exist. The merging of positions in some cities, necessitated by a limited personnel, hinders the adoption of a definite terminology. Charter provisions stipulating a low salary for a position are circumvented on some occasions by appointment to an additional position which permits a raise in compensation. Most of the cities of 10,000 population and over claim that they have definite titles for all positions, though it is doubtful if this is as general as reported. In answer to the question whether persons who hold the same title perform approximately the same type of work, 37 per cent of the cities of 10,000 population and over replying answered in the negative.

The size of the municipal personnel will determine the amount of attention which should be devoted to classification, since the small municipality will not require an elaborate system. In the smallest cities a formal scheme of classification may be dispensed with since it may prove not only unnecessary but actually burdensome. It has been suggested that a city may dispense with classification if the chief executive is personally acquainted with the employees and their duties.⁶ While the number of employees will vary greatly even in cities of the same size, it would appear

⁶Institute for Training in Municipal Administration, *Municipal Personnel Administration* (Chicago, 1935), p. 95.

that ordinarily a classification scheme would be required for a city of 10,000 population and over. As the municipalities in this group employ 80 per cent of the total personnel in cities of 1,000 population and over, it can be seen that classification constitutes a vital part of any study of municipal personnel administration in this State.

The actual task of classification according to duties involves a considerable amount of work which must be done carefully if the best results are to be obtained.⁷ The major steps in drawing up a proper classification plan are: (1) gathering and analyzing data on each position in the service on the basis of the duties, responsibilities, and extent of authority involved in each; (2) grouping the positions so studied into units called "classes," which are "sufficiently alike in respect to their duties and responsibilities to justify common treatment in selection, compensation, and other employment processes, and sufficiently different from positions of other classes to justify different treatment in one or more of these respects";⁸ (3) assigning an appropriate title and giving a description of and specifications for each class, which should include a list of the major duties involved, along with typical tasks, the minimum qualifications for the position, the ranges of compensation, and the lines of promotion to and from the position; and (4) actually assigning the existing positions in the service to one of these classes.⁹

⁷A group of suggested forms for use in a classification program may be found in Theodore B. Forbes, *Municipal Job Classification and Salary Standardization* (New York State Conference of Mayors, 1934), pp. 35-58.

⁸Civil Service Assembly and Bureau of Public Personnel Administration, *Classification and Compensation Plans* (Washington, 1928), p. 2.

⁹The accepted method in classification in the United States has been to start with the smallest unit or class, and combine the classes into a hierarchy of services. One writer suggests that this is the wrong approach, resulting in complexity and narrow groupings and making impossible a career service. He offers a new approach, namely beginning with the entire civil service, and by division and subdivision, eventually reaching the smallest unit. This, it is thought, will simplify

The classified service is thus an aggregate of small units which have been termed classes. In larger units of government, these classes may be combined into services based on the general character of the duties involved.¹⁰ The Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel found five such services: (1) administrative service, concerned with general management, of which budgeting and planning are examples; (2) professional service, including the scientific and technical professions represented by doctors, engineers, chemists, and social workers; (3) clerical service, concerned with the handling of papers and reports, of which typing, filing, and stenography are examples; (4) skilled and trades service, requiring the special skill found, for example, in plumbing, electric, and carpentry work; and (5) unskilled labor service, including the day laboring class.¹¹

In assigning positions to the proper class, no attention should be given to the departmental location or the salary of the post, but rather the criterion should be whether the same eligible list can be used in filling all vacancies in the class. In determining the service within which a class should fall, the objectives of a career service should be kept in mind, and the idea of promotion from the lower to the higher posts in the service should be the guide. The number of services and the number of classes within a service should be as few as possible, since simplicity is to be desired. The personnel organization will be more comprehensible, and the possibilities of a career enhanced, if the divisions are made as broad as possible. During the installation of any classification scheme it must be kept in mind that local variations will make necessary certain

the procedure, eliminate minute details, and outline the service in the broadest terms. See Lucius Wilmerding, *Government by Merit* (New York, 1935), paragraphs 119-158, pp. 48-63.

¹⁰Civil Service Assembly and Bureau of Public Personnel Administration, *op. cit.*, p. 10.

¹¹Report of the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel, *Better Government Personnel* (New York, 1935), p. 26.

adaptations, although the main principles of classification are essentially the same irrespective of the type of city.

Classification in the municipal service in Texas is still in its inaugural stages, even in some of the cities with a formal personnel agency.¹² The classified personnel of Houston is divided into nine services (lettered A to I), which are titled medical, engineering, clerical, police, operating engineering, fire, inspection, supervising, and skilled labor. Each of these services is divided into grades, and each grade into groups.¹³ The inspection service, for example, is divided into five grades, each involving different training and responsibilities. The first grade includes such positions as garbage inspector, quarantine inspector, and veterinary law inspector; the second, paving inspector and food inspector; the third, inspector in charge of street openings; the fourth, chief milk inspector; and the fifth, plumbing inspector and building inspector. Each of these grades is further divided into two groups according to the amount of experience required.

The police department of San Antonio has four grades. The first grade is composed of eleven groups, namely foot patrolmen, mounted patrolmen, traffic officers, policemen, chauffeurs, clerks, turnkeys, jailors, mechanics, secretaries, and detectives. Grade two is composed of sergeants and lieutenants, grade three, of captains only, and grade four, the police chief alone.¹⁴ The San Antonio fire department is divided in a similar manner into grades and groups. The El Paso Civil Service Commission has recently completed a classification plan for that portion of the personnel under its jurisdiction. In many respects the Dallas classification scheme is the most adequate and complete plan

¹²The terminology used in classification is not uniform or standard. Sometimes the smallest unit, described above as a class, is called a group or a grade, or both terms may be used, as in Houston. Again, the terms service and class are used interchangeably. This difference in terminology is ascribable to local preference, and does not affect the purposes, methods, or results of classification.

¹³*Civil Service Rules and Regulations, City of Houston*, Rule I.

¹⁴*Civil Service Code of the City of San Antonio, Texas*, Secs. 64-67.

found in Texas. Soon after the installation of the merit system in 1931 the Civil Service Board began a classification program of the positions under its jurisdiction, which has resulted in the formation of approximately eighty classified positions, each of which carries a compensation range.

Once the classification plan has been completed, there remains the important task of administration.¹⁵ One of the reasons for the deficiencies of some classification schemes has been the failure to perceive the system as one which must necessarily require constant attention and revision to care for changes in duties. The personnel agency, as the agent of administration, should be kept informed by the department heads of the creation of new and the abolition of old positions, and of the revision of the duties of existing positions. It will also be called upon to hear requests coming from department heads and employees for reclassification of certain positions on the grounds that the original assignment was erroneously made.¹⁶ The personnel agency must be on guard to prevent the creation of new titles without their incorporation into the classification plan, the transfer of employees from one class to another with the primary object of raising or lowering salaries without changing the duties, and similar attempts to avoid compliance with the spirit of the classification system.

II. SALARY STANDARDIZATION

Going hand in hand with classification is salary standardization, for without the latter the main objective of the former fails of attainment and the existing inequities in

¹⁵Civil Service Assembly and Bureau of Public Personnel Administration, *op. cit.*, pp. 21-23.

¹⁶The Civil Service Board of Dallas is responsible for classification. The tendency of the personnel officials in Dallas is to combine positions. Reclassification has been a major item in the work of the Board in the last two years, involving both additions to and revisions in the existing classification scheme.

compensation continue as an irritating influence. Having for its guide the principle of equal pay for equal work, the compensation plan should consist of a scale of standardized salaries based on the classification plan previously adopted. Salary standardization thus serves to complete the purposes of the classification scheme through a plan which if properly prepared at least is equitable as among the various classes of the civil service. In the absence of a compensation plan the service suffers through a depressed morale of the employees, the administrative officials are handicapped in determining the amounts necessary for personal services and in providing for personnel control, and the public is the loser in that there is a smaller output in services rendered due to internal dissatisfaction.

As might be expected from the absence of classification plans, there is a general lack of salary standardization in the cities of Texas. In one of the larger cities the position of senior clerk is budgeted at six different salary rates, ranging from \$90 to \$175 per month. In another city the personnel agency, after a survey of the compensation rates prior to the installation of a classification and compensation plan, reported that "an examination of the pay roll together with the statements furnished us as to the duties of employees convinces us that there are inequalities in the amounts paid various employees which constitute injustice and are creating dissatisfaction."¹⁷ The Commission went on to point out that six deputy tax collectors performing the same duties receive salaries varying from \$110 to \$157.50 per month, with the rates having no relation to seniority. Specific examples of this type could be given indefinitely but they would serve no useful purpose. It is apparent that the cities have failed generally to take advantage of the opportunity offered by an equitable arrangement of compensation rates to improve their personnel.

¹⁷*Report of the Civil Service Commission of El Paso to the Mayor, December 31, 1935, p. 5.*

The fundamental principle of salary standardization implies compensating employees not only on the basis of the work which they do, but also by assigning the same range of pay for all persons doing the same work. A correct compensation plan is one in which the various classes previously established are assigned specific rates of pay, and in which there are rules for the installation, administration, and amendment of the rates. Its uses have been summarized as follows:

1. A compensation plan serves as a definite expression of fiscal policy as to employment.
2. It constitutes a necessary and authoritative guide to the personnel agency in recruiting the service.
3. It is a definite basis for translating estimates of staff requirements into terms of money requirements—that is, for translating organization into appropriations and jobs into dollars.
4. It provides a sound basis for the equitable control of salary adjustments of individuals, individual positions, single classes of positions, or particular series, groups, or services.¹⁸

For each position there should be a maximum and a minimum rate of pay, with intermediate rates, so that length of service and individual efficiency can be taken into account. The minimum salary is paid to a person just entering the service, presumably with little or no experience. The intermediate rates are advances which are given as a person becomes more proficient in that position as a result of better acquaintance with the work and not because of seniority alone. The maximum rate is eventually reached through advancements, and is the highest salary which anyone in that particular class can receive regardless of his ability or length of service. Such gradations of pay rates serve as an incentive to an employee to remain in the service, and are justified on the grounds that an experienced employee is usually more valuable to the government than a recruit. The establishment of definite intermediate

¹⁸Civil Service Assembly and Bureau of Public Personnel Administration, *op. cit.*, p. 15.

rates of pay permits a measure of fiscal control over advancements, prevents the setting of odd rates and thus simplifies the accounting procedure, and finally maps out a definite course of advancement which encourages the employee to put forth his best efforts.

Advancement and promotion may be confused if a loose terminology is employed. Promotion involves not only an increase in pay but also a change from one class to another. Advancement implies an increase in pay, although the recipient remains in the same classified position. To instance, a promotion results when an employee is elevated from the position of junior clerk to that of senior clerk; an advancement occurs when the compensation of a junior clerk is raised from \$1,080 to \$1,200 per year.

In the preparation of the compensation plan the responsible agency is faced with the related tasks of determining the general level of compensation for the city employees, and of fixing the compensation for each class. The determination of the general level of compensation will involve a consideration of a number of factors, chief among which are certain intangible advantages and disadvantages of public employment, the wages paid in private employment for comparable positions, the living costs of the community, the amount which the city can afford to pay, and the salaries and wages that must be paid to secure the desired personnel. The rates of pay in private employment should provide nothing more than a general basis for comparison.¹⁹ While certain positions, such as those in the clerical service, are found in private concerns, others, like those in the safety departments, are characteristic of the public service alone. The wages paid in business vary; hence comparative data must be used with caution and with their reliability open to question.

According to one study, the advantages and disadvantages of public employment, which are not subject to

¹⁹Dallas used salary rates paid in private business as a factor in determining salary scales for the city service.

measurement because of their intangible character, operate to neutralize each other.²⁰ The advantages include relative security of tenure during economic depressions,²¹ the publicity given to governmental salaries (which makes them higher, at least in the lower levels), better working conditions, shorter hours, retirement benefits,²² difficulty of dismissing an employee, public opinion which usually opposes the lowering of salaries, and occasionally such indirect factors as hospitalization and cost prices. Among the disadvantages are low salary scales in the higher administrative posts, the possibility that advancement and promotion will be slow, veterans' preference, and the fact that promotion is not always based upon performance. It is the opinion of Dr. Upson that this balance renders unnecessary the consideration of these advantages and disadvantages in the determination of compensation rates.

The cost-of-living standards prevailing in the community serve a useful purpose in determining the minimum salaries. Certainly the government should not reduce its wages below a level of minimum living standards. The determination of living costs involves a consideration of many variables which must be weighed carefully. The Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States Department of Labor furnishes data on this point which unfortunately are based on returns from the larger cities alone; smaller municipalities will have to turn to other sources for this information.

Taking all these factors into consideration, however, the final criterion will be the ability of the city to pay as measured by its financial resources. The total income of

²⁰Lent D. Upson, "How to Determine an Equitable Pay Basis for Public Employees," *Public Management*, Vol. XVI (March, 1934), p. 82.

²¹Security of tenure is more likely to be found in subordinate positions than in those of higher administrative rank, and is more apt to be an influential factor with men of lesser ability and competence.

²²The lack of pension plans in all save a few Texas cities places additional emphasis on financial remuneration.

the city and the calls made upon it for debt service and other special expenditures will have to be considered. It is evident, however, that unduly low wages will affect adversely the entire service, as attested time and time again in those municipalities which have made reductions without regard for any other factor save the necessity of retrenchment. Perhaps the most conclusive test of the compensation scale is to see "whether an efficient staff is being recruited to and retained in the civil service."²³ Constituting in effect a combination of the other factors, this criterion offers a workable approach to the compensation problem, although it raises troublesome questions with regard to the determination of just what is an "efficient staff."

After determining the general level of municipal salaries there remains the important duty of fixing the rates of pay for each particular class.²⁴ The personnel agency is the unit best equipped to study this problem and make recommendations to the council. Included among the factors which should be considered are:

1. A comparison of the various classes within the service as to their relative importance and difficulties in duties, their value to the service, and their entrance qualifications.
2. Opportunities for advancement within, and promotion from the class.
3. Working conditions.
4. General standards of living, age, and marital status of persons usually recruited for the class.
5. Compensation paid in the community for comparable positions in private business.
6. Past pay, and immediate and ultimate cost to the city.²⁵

Following the completion of a tentative classification plan and its submission to the fiscal officers and council, there remains the responsibility for fixing the rates of pay and the schedule of salary increases which will have to be assumed by the legislative body.

²³Lucius Wilmerding, *op. cit.*, paragraph 500, p. 183.

²⁴In Dallas, the manager and council determine the salary ranges.

²⁵Civil Service Assembly and Bureau of Public Personnel Administration, *op. cit.*, pp. 15-16.

The administration of the compensation plan after its adoption constitutes an important phase of the whole procedure; for if the plan is not subjected to a continuous scrutiny and revised in conformance with the changes in classifications, the old inequities will again arise in various departments. The correct agency to administer the compensation scheme is still an open question, although there appears to be considerable authority for assigning compensation administration to the budget agency and classification to the personnel agency. It is argued that the nature of the activities of each of these units is such as to justify this placement.²⁶ In the smaller cities this question will not ordinarily arise, due to the general absence of a separate personnel agency.²⁷

The administration of the compensation plan involves the establishment of a routine system to check pay rolls and prevent padding or improper payments. Among the items to be checked are the attendance record, authorization of funds, legality of the employment of those receiving checks, classification, and salary rate. The checking of pay rolls is a necessary function in any governmental unit, regardless of formal compensation plans. The procedure in preparing, checking, and disbursing pay rolls will not be discussed here, since there are several variable factors affecting the determination of the proper system.²⁸

In common with most civil service commissions, those of Texas cities are assigned the duty of certifying the pay roll. The secretary of the Dallas Civil Service Board checks the names, classifications, and rates of pay of the employees, stamping the laborers as "unclassified," and the

²⁶*Ibid.*, pp. 19-20.

²⁷For an account of the plan followed in Massachusetts, see Frank H. Putnam, "Linking Personnel and Budget Functions," in *Summary of Proceedings of the Fourth Eastern States Regional Conference of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 1932*, pp. 27-29.

²⁸See C. P. Messick, "Modern Municipal Pay Roll Procedure," *Public Management*, Vol. XV (May, 1933), pp. 135-138.

auditor's office checks pay roll extensions. In Fort Worth, the secretary of the Civil Service Commission certifies that each person on the pay roll is properly employed and is receiving the correct salary. The pay rolls of the fire and police departments of San Antonio originate with the secretary of each department, and then go successively to the clerk of the Civil Service Board, chairman of the Board, fire and police commissioner, mayor, treasurer, and auditor. The El Paso provision is that "All pay rolls in the classified service shall be submitted to the Civil Service Commission, before warrants are drawn, for their certification as to the eligibility of the employee."²⁹ The secretary of the Houston Civil Service Commission also has a part in pay roll preparation.

The agency which supervises the compensation plan should seek continuously to keep it in accord with changes in the classification scheme and in living costs in the community. General practice does not conform to this ideal, however, since the usual plan is to cut salaries in a rather unsystematic and arbitrary fashion during the depression years and raise them with equal disregard for logic as the economic situation improves. St. Paul has occupied a unique position in this respect, for since 1922 it has provided by ordinance for automatic annual salary rate adjustments based upon changes in living costs (1916 is taken as the year for the basic rate) as presented in the reports of the United States Department of Labor. The percentage of adjustment is larger for the salaries in the low ranges, and decreases as the salary grows larger, applying in no case to salaries in excess of \$375 per month. Despite some difficulties at the inception of the depression when it became necessary to make reductions for the first time, the general verdict appears to be one of approval.

²⁹*Code of Rules and Regulations of the El Paso Civil Service Commission* (1935), Sec. 86.

This plan is in reality simply a classification and compensation plan, with an annual revision of salary scales in conformity with economic conditions.³⁰

The interdependent practices of classification and salary standardization constitute a necessary basis for the conduct of personnel administration in the larger cities. While it is true that a city may make substantial progress toward a merit system without an elaborate or formal classification scheme, it is difficult to see how the civil service can be organized and administered properly without the aid of the tool of classification. The smaller cities constitute an exception, for their size facilitates a closer relationship between the executive and administrative officers and the subordinate personnel, and therefore classification is not necessary to attain the desired ends. Simplicity should be the goal of any classification plan, for its chief purpose is to clarify and describe the work of the civil service; hence one which is so intricate as to be confusing defeats its own purpose.

The salary standardization plan must rest upon a foundation of careful classification. Little is to be gained by simply classifying positions; classifications must be correlated with salary schedules, recruitment and promotion, service ratings, and educational standards and levels. While classification is a matter of direct concern to the personnel agency, salary standardization ultimately rests with the council for action, after the personnel office suggests rates and ranges, and with the budget agency for administration. Even the small city will find a classification plan helpful in providing equitable salary scales. The plan will need to be simple and flexible. All cities should endeavor to correlate salaries and wages paid to the municipal employees with the living costs of the community, and to pay enough to secure the services of competent persons.

³⁰For an explanation of the St. Paul plan, see J. B. Probst, "The St. Paul Plan of Adjusting Salaries to Cost of Living," *Public Management*, Vol. XV (June, 1933), pp. 163-166.

Finally, this combination forms one of the most important aspects of financial administration, of which personnel administration is an important part. The administrator will find many of his personnel problems solved if the civil servants are satisfied with the fairness of the classification and compensation plans. In this regard it is noteworthy that both are largely non-existent in Texas, even in some of the cities with a formal personnel agency. So long as the cities of this State refuse to recognize the usefulness of classification and salary standardization, just so long will their personnel investment fail to achieve its full potentialities.

CHAPTER VI

RECRUITMENT

From the inception of the merit system in American cities, recruitment has been one of the principal duties of the personnel agency. Recently this function has had to share its position in some instances with that of supervision. Despite this development, however, recruitment continues to constitute the major motive for the existence of the personnel agency. Recruiting for the municipal service assumes a dominant position when it is remembered that the removal process in those cities possessing a formal merit system is usually one of great difficulty. It becomes evident, therefore, that those who would develop an efficient municipal personnel must regard recruitment as the critical stage in building the civil service. Negligence at this point too often permits incompetents and misfits to become ensconced safely on the city's pay roll.

The jurisdiction of the personnel agency is limited, however, in that certain classes of employees are not subject to the examination process. Generally this list includes popularly elected officials, members of boards and commissions, specifically excepted officers, department heads, and unskilled labor, although exceptions occasionally are found in the instances of the last two classes. While formerly it was believed that selection by examination should be limited to routine positions, recent experiments have indicated that posts even of an administrative character can be filled satisfactorily by this method. Recognition of this fact has tended not only to broaden the jurisdiction of the personnel agency but also to furnish another motive for an efficient administration of the activities of this unit. While most of the examining found in Texas is done in the six cities maintaining formal merit systems, certain parts of the ensuing discussion will pertain to particular personnel practices followed in other municipalities. The

problem of recruitment can best be developed, perhaps, along the lines of application, testing, and appointment.¹

I. APPLICATION

The initial step in the recruiting process is the announcement of the examination, which should give the name of the position to be filled, duties required, qualifications of the applicants, salary range, time, place and nature of the examination, and place of application.² Not only should the announcement comply with all legal provisions but it should also be given extensive publicity through the employment of such agencies as newspapers, trade journals, employment services, radio, professional associations, business schools, and the bulletin boards in city halls, high schools, and colleges. Announcements must be attractive and at the same time give the essential knowledge required by the applicant. They should by all means minimize information of an unnecessary character, such as the names of the commissioners and detailed legal requirements.³

Following the announcement those interested in entering the examination file a formal application blank which usually contains requests for information relative to the name, education, age, sex, previous employment, weight,

¹William C. Beyer, "Municipal Civil Service in the United States," in *Problems of the American Public Service* (New York, 1935), p. 103.

Only the barest outline of the recruiting process can be given here. Those desirous of reading further may consult other studies on this subject, among which are Leonard D. White, *Introduction to the Study of Public Administration* (New York, 1926), pp. 251-273; John M. Pfiffner, *Public Administration* (New York, 1935), pp. 170-199; Lucius Wilmerding, *Government by Merit* (New York, 1935), paragraphs 159-402, pp. 64-151; and William E. Mosher and J. Donald Kingsley, *Public Personnel Administration* (New York, 1936), pp. 105-192.

²The duties, classification, and salary ranges are taken from the classification plan.

³"Announcing and Advertising Tests for Positions in the Public Service," *Public Personnel Studies*, Vol. 5 (April, 1927), pp. 70-75.

height, physical condition, and marital status of the applicant, and for references. In addition to these usual queries, Texas cities request information as to citizenship, local residence, previous public employment, criminal record, members of family in the municipal service, and pensions received. Dallas asks the applicant if he supports the form of government established by the United States Constitution. El Paso inquires about unpaid installment purchases and the status of the applicant as a taxpayer.

One of the most common qualifications of applicants is that of local residence. Dallas has the most lenient requirement, which is that the appointing authority shall give "preferential consideration to applicants living within the City."⁴ Applicants in El Paso, Houston, and San Antonio must have resided within the city for a year preceding the selection, while Fort Worth fixes six months in Tarrant County. Dallas and Fort Worth are permitted to waive local preference for positions requiring special training or education. Galveston, Waco, and Wichita Falls have ordinances prohibiting the employment of out-of-town people, while Beaumont, Port Arthur, and Amarillo follow the practice of employing local residents in the absence of a legal requirement. All of the twenty cities reporting in the 10,000 to 40,000 group employ local people, although only one municipality has a definite ordinance to this effect.

Despite the almost unanimous practice of local preference in Texas cities, it must be said that this requirement acts as an impediment to the development of any sort of career service at the level of the city. With the exception of the city manager, only a few instances of intercity transfers of municipal personnel are on record in this State; and even in the case of the manager there appears to be a definite tendency to appoint local individuals following the original selection. As in the nation so in Texas has the depression strengthened the local preference rule, which has served to eliminate many of the most promising

⁴*Rules and Regulations of the Civil Service Board, City of Dallas, Texas*, p. 14.

applicants.⁵ In no other instance is there greater need for a reorientation in thinking than in this matter of "home town jobs for home town boys."

Extensive variations are found in Texas cities as to the age and educational qualifications of applicants. Houston sets for all applicants a general age range which extends from twenty-one to forty-five. The age range in Dallas and Fort Worth for entrance into the police service is twenty-three to thirty-six years and into the fire service, twenty-one to thirty-three years. San Antonio fire and police recruits must be between twenty-one and thirty years of age, and qualified voters. El Paso police and fire applicants are required to be between the ages of twenty-one and thirty-five, while the minimum age for recruitment under the Civil Service Commission of that city is twenty-one, except for those positions paying \$70 or less a month, in which case it is nineteen years. The Abilene fire department recruiting age ranges from twenty-one to thirty-one years. The remaining cities stipulate no definite age qualification.

Few Texas cities require definite educational training. Dallas has gone to the greatest lengths in this respect by requiring a grammar school education for junior clerks, college training for technical posts, and two years and four years of high school training for firemen and policemen respectively.⁶ In the cities from 10,000 to 100,000, a few

⁵Raymond M. Gallagher, "Public Personnel Problems and the Depression," *National Municipal Review*, Supplement, Vol. XXII (April, 1933), p. 203.

⁶Of the 225 members in the Dallas police department on June 1, 1935, 74, or 33 per cent, were high-school graduates, and an additional 51, or 23 per cent, had attended high school from one to three years. Of the 225 members, 57, or 25 per cent, had taken some type of educational work beyond high school, 5 of these being college graduates (from a memorandum prepared by and used with the permission of Mr. E. M. Powell, Secretary and Chief Examiner of the Dallas Civil Service Board).

To be contrasted with this is the situation in another Texas city where 85 per cent of the policemen have not had more than elementary school education and the recruiting examinations are prepared on a fourth-grade level.

exceptions to the general practice are found. Sweetwater and Big Spring require high school training for firemen, policemen, and clerks. Marshall requires high school and grammar school training for policemen and firemen respectively. Other cities which demand some scholastic training are Greenville, Lubbock, San Angelo, and Austin. Abilene, with a total fire personnel of twenty-eight, by means of difficult examinations has built up a fire department in which there are nine men with some college training, and only two without a high school education. With a few minor exceptions these cities are the only ones requiring training of any sort prior to entrance.

It is one of the peculiar features of the American governmental system that the development of public education has failed to awaken a corresponding realization of the close tie that should exist between the public service and education. Candidates for the municipal service have been drawn too often from private business and in most instances they are mediocre in ability.⁷ In this connection the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel has suggested the following age limits and educational qualifications for the different types of governmental services:⁸

Type of Service	Entrance Age	Minimum Educational Requirements	Type of Examination
Unskilled Labor	None	Grade school or two years high school	Practical tests, usually on the job
Skilled Trades	After apprenticeship	High School	Practical tests
Clerical	16-17	Two years high school	General intelligence and high school subjects
Clerical-Executive	18-19	High School	High school subjects
Professional and Technical	23-28	Special training	On subjects of special training
Administrative	23-28	Advanced general education	General knowledge of advanced subjects

⁷Lucius Wilmerding, *op. cit.*, paragraph 213, p. 86.

⁸Report of the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel, *Better Government Personnel* (New York, 1935), pp. 42-44.

Under this plan the recruits in the higher classes would enter the public service directly after completing their scholastic training. Emphasis would be placed on ability and general knowledge rather than a narrow if intensive acquaintance with a few subjects. Those who consider this plan and the ultimate goal to be too difficult of attainment by the cities because of opposition should not be too quick to scoff. The adoption of a career system would permit the larger cities to recruit directly from the educational systems and smaller municipalities. While the career system is not completely applicable to the smaller cities, they must give some attention to this matter if they would escape the twin inseparables, incompetent personnel and inept administration. In addition they are fitted to serve well as a training ground for future administrators. It is in this latter instance, perhaps, that the smaller city can best serve in the development of the career system.

II. TESTING

The primary purpose of holding examinations for entrance into the public service is to determine what persons are best fitted by character,⁹ ability, education, and experience to perform the duties of an office. As is common among personnel agencies at all levels of government, those of the cities examine for specific knowledge and skills. Present-day practice regarding the type of examination used in Texas and, indeed, throughout the nation, is epitomized in the El Paso requirement that "All tests shall be practical, and shall consist only of such subjects as will fairly determine the capacity of the persons examined to perform the duties of the position to which appointment is to be made. . . ."¹⁰

⁹For a discussion of the methods employed to investigate character, see H. T. Kranz, "Character Investigation of Civil Service Applicants," in *Summary of the Proceedings of the Fourth Eastern States Regional Conference of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 1932*, pp. 54-65.

¹⁰*Code of Rules and Regulations of the El Paso Civil Service Commission*, Sec. 23.

Various types of tests are employed at the present time, among which are psychological tests, information or knowledge tests (free answer and short answer in form), performance tests, and oral interview. Additional requirements sometimes demanded are a health certificate, a certificate of sound physical condition, and proof of good character. Written examinations may test either intellectual capacity or actual knowledge; tests of actual knowledge in turn may either cover a specialized field or be of a general nature. The extent to which any one or more of these tests should be used depends upon the type of position to be filled, and upon the educational qualifications necessary for entrance. Physical and performance tests should carry more weight in examining typists or laborers, while oral interviews are useful in selecting a person for an administrative post.

Since the worth of any examination to the personnel agency rests on its selective value,¹¹ it is obvious that those charged with the duty of preparing the tests have a grave responsibility. If there is a succession of appointments which (by their performance) do not justify the original ranking, it is evident that something is amiss in the selection process. The secretary and chief examiner in Dallas ordinarily prepares the examination, although in the instance of a technical position he consults the department head. In Houston the department in which the position is located prepares and marks the tests, as is also the case in the Abilene fire department and the El Paso fire and police departments. The El Paso Civil Service Commission controls the examination process in those departments over which it has jurisdiction. The secretary of the Fort Worth Civil Service Board prepares all examinations except the promotional tests for the fire department, which are provided by that unit. Responsibility for the preparation and administration of examinations in this State, then, is divided between the department concerned and the personnel agency.

¹¹Leonard D. White, *op. cit.*, p. 269.

PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTS

Psychological tests are designed to measure innate mental capacity and inherent powers of observation, memory, and judgment, rather than any special field of knowledge, and are frequently used to supplement other tests. Although the Army Alpha test has been used extensively for many years, only two instances are found of its employment in this State. Dallas requires all applicants to take the Army Alpha test and failure to achieve an average score places them at the bottom of the eligible list in the event they pass the general information test. A close correlation was found to exist in Abilene between the ratings on the Army Alpha and the fire fighters' tests. Examinations of this type may serve as "rejection" tests where the number of applicants is large, thereby permitting a more thorough examination of those clearing the first hurdle. An additional use is the employment of the scores made on psychological tests from time to time to measure the general intelligence level of those applying. In this manner the city may be able to appraise the attractiveness of its recruitment program by noting comparatively the caliber of the applicants so far as this can be measured by the examination results.

Closely related to the intelligence test is the aptitude test, which attempts to ascertain the extent to which the applicants are adaptable to the occupation they hope to enter. Experiments are being carried on in constructing an adaptability test for policemen, known as the O'Rourke test, which has been prepared by the United States Civil Service Commission.¹² In this connection it is interesting to note that Dallas found that patrolmen recruited since the installation of the merit system made higher scores than those entering the service under the former plan.¹³

¹²Copies of this test can be secured, by any city which agrees to report the results, from the Public Administration Service, 850 East 58th Street, Chicago, Illinois.

¹³*Progress, An Official Report of Municipal Achievement in Dallas* (1935), p. 31.

KNOWLEDGE TESTS

Written tests having for their purpose the measurement of the applicant's knowledge of a special field or general information or both constitute the most popular type in use in Texas cities at the present time. Questions designed to gauge the applicant's knowledge of a special field may be illustrated by the following questions given recently in examinations by Texas cities:

What is a starting compensator and how is it operated?
(Water operator)

A small amount of nitrogen gas in a room collects in "pockets." (Fireman)

What additional charges are collected when city taxes become delinquent? (Delinquent tax collector)

A police officer who discovers a man making nickels out of lead should not arrest him, because counterfeiting is a federal crime. (Patrolman)

Questions asking for general information may be employed to measure the applicant's ability to do a particular task or to determine his general intelligence. The purpose of the general information test will depend upon the kind of position to be filled. For example, a question relating to local geography would pertain directly to the duties of a fireman or patrolman but not to those of a stenographer. General information questions which have been used in Texas cities are illustrated by the following:

Rayon is a dance, food, fabric, drink. (Stenographer)

Betting on the results of a game, or playing a game of chance for stakes is called..... (Patrolman)

Who is the head of the State Government, and where is the Capitol of Texas? (Patrolman)

A Tourniquet is a type of fish. (Fireman)

A third type of test which is not strictly informational in character but which is designed more for the purpose of testing the judgment of the applicant is found in the so-called "common sense" questions which have been employed to some extent by the federal government. Ex-

amples of the type of judgment required may be noted from the following:

The saying, "A thousand anxieties will not pay one debt," means most nearly (1) The creditor is the one who should be troubled. (2) It is easy to be cheerful when you have no obligations. (3) The debtor has a thousand worries. (4) He who has little money has few cares. (5) Nothing is ever accomplished through worry. (Stenographer)

Which of the following is the chief reason why a police force is necessary? (1) to enforce law and order, (2) to control traffic, (3) to prevent criminals from escaping from jail, (4) to record fingerprints, (5) to direct strangers. (Patrolman)

As might be expected, there is general disagreement as to the relative measuring abilities of special knowledge and general information tests. Those who propose to ascertain the knowledge of the applicant as to a particular position will support the special knowledge tests, while those who believe that a broad knowledge and above-average intelligence will enable the applicant to learn the necessary routine will favor the other type. To date there is no accurate answer which can be given to this question, since much remains to be done by way of experimentation before a scientific conclusion can be drawn. In the meantime, the examiner can escape the dilemma by using both types of questions.

The examples given previously of the types of questions used in Texas cities are of two kinds, namely free answer and short answer. The free answer question is answered by the applicant according to his own knowledge. This type has the advantage of testing the applicant's ability to organize and express his thoughts in written form, while on the other hand it is open to subjective and partial standards of grading. The short answer question places the responsibility for accuracy on the person constructing the examination rather than on the grader. Among the more common forms of short answer questions are (1) multiple choice, where the testee selects the correct answer from a number of possible choices; (2) true-false, where

the testee marks a statement true or false; (3) completion, where the testee supplies the necessary word or phrase in order to complete a statement; and (4) matching, where the testee is required to match two terms having a similar meaning.

As can be seen, the free answer question requires a considerable amount of time to grade and the cost becomes prohibitive when a large number are to be examined. On the other hand, the short answer question can be graded quickly and easily with clerical assistance and with relatively few chances of error, since the task of grading can be reduced to a mechanical process. It should be noted, however, that an extensive amount of study is required if the short answer test is to be scientifically prepared. After a thorough investigation of these two types of questions, the Bureau of Public Personnel Administration came to the conclusion that "practically all the investigations which may fairly be described as scientific indicate with a great degree of conclusiveness that written tests in the free answer form are of a very limited value as measuring devices. This is due largely to the fact that from their very nature they are unreliable; it seems to be impossible consistently to select and score free answer material which will produce comparable results in the hands of different examiners or in the hands of the same examiner under different conditions or at different times."¹⁴

With one or two exceptions, Texas cities have not taken advantage of the improvements in the techniques of testing which have been made in recent years. They continue to employ the traditional type of free answer question in many instances and are content generally to utilize the same

¹⁴"The Construction of Tests in the Short Answer Form," *Public Personnel Studies*, Vol. 5 (July, 1927), p. 130. This article contains an exhaustive analysis of the relative merits of the short answer and free answer types of questions and makes several recommendations for the administration of examinations utilizing the short answer form.

techniques with little or no experimentation. The personnel agencies in this State should realize that the general trend is away from the factual, intensive type of test to one which is designed to reveal the "fundamental mental qualities rather than intellectual acquisitions" of the applicant.¹⁵ Much experimentation needs to be done to bring the testing program in Texas cities to a level comparable to that of municipalities in other parts of the nation.

PRACTICAL PERFORMANCE TESTS

Applicants in some instances are required to do the actual work involved in the position in order to test their performance on the job. For example, typists and stenographers will be examined in dictation and letter writing, while skilled tradesmen such as bricklayers or plumbers will be required to exhibit a certain level of proficiency under ordinary working conditions. In the testing of laborers, the experience of Milwaukee has been such as to deserve brief mention. Formerly in that city laborers had to pass a physical examination only, and were employed in the order of their application. To correct the general dissatisfaction resulting from this type of test, the labor positions were divided into six groups consisting of (1) rough jobs requiring considerable strength, (2) heavy jobs demanding unusual physical strength, (3) jobs requiring alertness and agility in addition to some strength, (4) jobs requiring the ability to climb, (5) jobs requiring some familiarity with simple mechanics, and (6) jobs requiring a relatively high degree of social dependability.¹⁶

Different types of tests were used for examining the applicants. Included among these were tests of strength, literacy, mental reactions, equilibrium, familiarity with tools, agility, and custodial dependability. The weight

¹⁵Leonard D. White, *Trends in Public Administration* (New York, 1933), p. 252.

¹⁶Milwaukee Board of City Service Commissioners, *Method of Examining Laborers Used by the City Service Commission of Milwaukee* (Milwaukee, no date).

assigned to each test varied with the group. The success of this experiment in Milwaukee suggests its adoption in other cities, since unskilled labor constitutes one of the largest among the personnel classes. There is the additional fact that this class by tradition has come to be victimized by the spoilsman. In many cities the most vicious results of the spoils system are found in the employment and dismissal of unskilled laborers.

ORAL INTERVIEWS

Oral interviews ordinarily are employed after the applicant has passed the written examination. In San Antonio the oral interview counts 20 per cent and the written examination 80 per cent on the final grade. Dallas gives an oral examination to applicants for technical positions and also for promotional purposes. In each instance the oral examination is conducted by the Civil Service Board. Oral interviews ordinarily are used to discover certain personality traits of the applicant (which as yet cannot be measured by written tests), among which are poise, alertness, tact, accuracy, judgment, speech, and reaction to certain situations. The oral interview may be used for personal purposes and is, of course, largely subjective unless administered by a trained examiner. This type of test is of primary importance in selecting candidates for higher administrative posts.

PHYSICAL EXAMINATIONS

The physical examination may be simply a pass examination, in which instance the applicant is judged as to his fitness or unfitness for duty, or it may become a part of the regular process, with the physical rating affecting the final grade. The latter practice is followed in Houston, which requires the ratings to be averaged in with the rest of the test. In the rating of patrolmen 30 per cent is based on the physical test, while in the case of firemen the percentage is increased to 60. The examinations may precede the regular tests, as in San Antonio; they may be given to

those obtaining a place on the eligible list, as in Fort Worth and Dallas; or they may be given to the applicant just prior to appointment, as in El Paso and Abilene. In addition to the regular physical examination, firemen and patrolmen generally are required to meet certain standards as to height and weight.

Although the need for physical examinations is generally admitted, most Texas cities require this procedure only for the fire and police services. Houston, Dallas, San Angelo, and Beaumont are the only cities requiring all new employees to be given a medical examination. Fort Worth, San Antonio, and El Paso limit physical examinations to the fire and police departments; Austin to policemen, firemen, and laborers; and Waco to firemen, policemen, and street workers. None of the remaining cities of 40,000 and above requires a medical examination, while only 30 per cent of the cities in the 10,000 to 40,000 group do so. The adoption of this one requirement alone would save considerable sums in the form of a reduction of the present expenditures for compensation now going to employees injured in the service because of physical defects or bodily ailments.¹⁷

COMPETITIVE AND NON-COMPETITIVE EXAMINATIONS

The examinations which have been described thus far are termed "competitive" since they are tests open to all applicants who qualify. Another type of examination, called "non-competitive," is employed to refer to a position "requiring peculiar and exceptional qualifications of a scientific, managerial, professional or educational character,"¹⁸ for which no examinations have as yet been con-

¹⁷A recent study suggests that in testing firemen and policemen the medical test should count 40 per cent, a written test 20 per cent, personal qualifications 20 per cent, education 10 per cent, and experience 10 per cent. See the New York State Conference of Mayors, *Model Plan for the Selection of Patrolmen* (Albany, 1931), and *Model Plan for the Selection of Firemen* (Albany, 1931).

¹⁸*Rules and Regulations of the Civil Service Board, City of Dallas, Texas*, Rule IV, Sec. 1.

structed. Ordinarily such a position is filled by the appointing officer, who selects a qualified person on the basis of education, experience, ability, character, and training, subject to the approval of the personnel agency. Oral examinations are used extensively in selecting persons to fill non-competitive posts.

Competitive examinations ordinarily are confined to applicants for lower grade positions, although in at least two instances they have been utilized in filling administrative posts. In 1935 El Paso filled the post of superintendent of waterworks by a competitive examination which consisted of four parts. The subject matter and the weights assigned were (1) an oral examination, 30 per cent; (2) a statement of training and experience, 30 per cent; (3) a thesis on the management of the waterworks, 24 per cent; and (4) a written test covering accounting, chemistry, and waterworks construction, 16 per cent. A total of thirteen took the examination, of which five qualified for the eligible list.¹⁹

In selecting a budget officer in 1932 Dallas gave the Otis intelligence test to ninety-six applicants, together with a series of short answer examinations covering English, principles and practice of government finance, and memory for oral directions.²⁰ The twenty-six candidates who passed the intelligence test and made a grade of 70 or higher on the written test were interviewed by a committee composed of the city manager, civil service secretary, and assistant director of finance. Sixty points were given for the written test and 40 per cent for experience, personality, and number of dependents, all of which were graded on the point system. From the eligible list so devised the final appointment was made by the city manager. The experiences of these two cities indicate that competitive examinations may

¹⁹*Report of the Civil Service Commission of El Paso to the Mayor, December 31, 1935*, pp. 3-5.

²⁰Stuart Bailey, "How a Budget Officer Was Selected in Dallas, Texas," *Public Management*, Vol. XV (January, 1933), pp. 25-26.

well be used to fill many of the higher administrative positions now ordinarily exempted from the classified service.

Competitive examinations are limited, with a few exceptions, to the cities having a formal merit system. Houston gave no examinations from 1933 to 1935; in the latter year, however, tests were given for positions in the fire, police, and water departments and for stenographers and clerks. Dallas has given a large number of examinations since the adoption of the manager plan in 1931. San Antonio requires about four examinations a year to fill vacancies in the fire and police departments. For the past four years Fort Worth has given no examinations except for firemen and policemen. The Civil Service Commission of El Paso in the year since it was organized has held examinations for delinquent tax collector, stenographer, waterworks superintendent, and recreation director. The number taking certain examinations and those passing are indicated in Table XXI, which contains some interesting information as to the percentages passing particular types of tests.

Despite the known benefits to be derived from a recruiting program based on examinations, the complaint is heard in many Texas cities that they are too small to support a personnel agency, or that the expense involved does not bring adequate returns. Even in the absence of a separate personnel agency cities may secure examinations from a number of sources. First, they can coöperate with other municipal personnel agencies and exchange examinations and experiences. Second, the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada makes available the tests devised by the Bureau of Public Personnel Administration, some of which may still be purchased. Third, there is a possibility that the eligible lists compiled by the United States Civil Service Commission might be thrown open by executive order to municipalities.²¹

²¹Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel, *Minutes of Evidence* (New York, 1935), pp. 43-44.

Another source of aid to Texas cities which has not yet been realized is that which could be furnished by a State personnel agency. City officials are about evenly divided in this State on the advisability of a State examining board having for its function the preparation of examinations for municipalities, although they are unanimous in the desire to limit the function of such a board to that activity.

TABLE XXI

NUMBER OF PERSONS TAKING AND PASSING CERTAIN COMPETITIVE
ENTRANCE EXAMINATIONS, 1934-1935

City and Position	Number Taking Examination	Number Passing Examination	Per Cent Passing Examination
Houston			
Patrolman	83	35	42
Fireman	30	25	83
Water Plant Operator.....	8	3	37
Dallas			
Patrolman	92	66	72
Patrolman	142	83	58
Fireman	123	65	53
Water Plant Operator.....	28	11	39
General Clerk	321	160	50
Airport Field Supervisor.....	53	32	60
Public Health Nurse.....	33	25	76
Social Service Worker.....	35	12	34
Junior Clerk	318	162	51
San Antonio			
Patrolman (Colored)	15	8	53
Fireman	41	19	46
Ft. Worth			
Patrolman	85	28	33
Fireman	140	80	57
El Paso			
Fireman	47	27	57
Stenographer			
Junior and Senior.....	42	20	48
Delinquent Tax Collector.....	32	15	47
Patrolman	96	30	31
Total	1,764	906	51

It would appear, however, that the formation of a State personnel agency for the State civil service would eliminate the need for a separate examining board, since the former might well perform this duty in the course of its regular activities. The State agency could serve as a source

of information to local commissions and through a partial standardization of examinations might well assist effectively in combating the present widespread demand for local preference.

III. APPOINTMENT

Although the active rôle of the personnel agency in recruitment ends with the creation of the eligible list, certain aspects of the appointive process deserve to be considered, since they play vital parts in the recruitment process. The eligible list is composed of those who make a passing grade on the examination, with first place being assigned to the person making the highest grade. The ordinary practice in the cities of this State is to require a minimum grade of 70 for a place on the eligible list. The El Paso Civil Service Commission requires a grade of 75 per cent for its eligible list. Various practices are found as to the creation of the eligible list. The list of eligibles may be created before or at the time of the creation of a vacancy. It is a common practice to dissolve the eligible lists at the expiration of a year and renew them by examination. If eligible lists are created before the vacancy occurs, those better qualified will be enticed into private business or will become disgusted with the slow procedure. On the other hand, the practice of creating eligible lists after the vacancy occurs leads to a possible abuse through provisional appointments, as will be noted presently. The personnel agency and the appointing officer should coöperate closely so as to be able to anticipate vacancies in time to prepare an eligible list.

When a vacancy occurs, the appointing officer requests a certification of eligibles by the personnel agency, which ordinarily results in the submission of three names. This is the practice followed in Texas cities with the exception of Houston, where the highest name only is submitted. The merits of these two plans are well known, although it should be noted that even in those instances where three names are submitted the actual practice in many instances is to appoint the highest person. It is good practice to

permit eligible candidates to exercise some choice as to the position to which they are to be appointed, provided vacancies occur for the same position in more than one department.

Although some 85 per cent of the government employees of this country operate under personnel systems which give veterans a preference, the cities of Texas fortunately have escaped this practice. Alone among the cities, El Paso permits its one-year residence rule to be waived in the case of applicants for positions in the police and fire departments who have been honorably discharged from the army or navy within six months of their application and who have resided in El Paso for the preceding thirty days. In no instance does a city give additional points to veterans or place them at the head of the list, as is done in other jurisdictions. It is unnecessary, therefore, to pursue this question further.²²

Another question of some interest relates to the employment of married women whose husbands are gainfully employed. The five cities of 100,000 population and over do not make a practice of discriminating against married women, although there has been considerable agitation in one city looking to the prohibition of their employment. Four of the seven cities from 40,000 to 100,000 population make it a policy not to employ married women, while few married women are employed in the remaining three. Of the 236 cities below 40,000 which replied to this question, 34 per cent do not employ married women whose husbands are gainfully employed, while 54 per cent replied that the status of the husband was not a deciding factor. The remaining 12 per cent employ no women.

In common with the general practice, the cities of Texas prescribe a probationary period for the applicant after appointment, during which time he may be summarily discharged. The probationary period is eighteen months in

²²See John F. Miller, "Veteran Preference in the Public Service," in *Problems of the American Public Service*, pp. 241-334.

Houston, twelve months for firemen and policemen and six months for the other classified positions in El Paso, six months in San Antonio, and three months in Dallas and Fort Worth. Although the probationary period is really a part of the recruitment procedure and appointment is not final until the end of this period, the practice in Texas cities is not to discharge during this time. In order to prevent the new employee from being lost in the organization, Dallas requires an efficiency report at the end of each thirty days of the probationary period. This report counts heavily in the final determination as to permanent employment. With this exception there appears to be no general realization of the usefulness of the probationary period in measuring the examining process in terms of actual accomplishment on the job. As a final method of preventing incompetents from attaining a permanent position, the potentialities of the probationary period have not been realized.

Provisional or temporary appointments are made directly by the appointing agent in the instances where an eligible list is not available.²³ In an effort to prevent abuses which frequently have characterized provisional and temporary appointments, cities generally place a limit on the length of time persons so appointed may serve. El Paso has a sixty-day and Fort Worth a ninety-day limit, while the Houston rule simply requires that provisional appointments terminate when the permanent appointment is made, thus opening a potential avenue of abuse.²⁴ Dallas has no time limit on provisional appointments, but requires the appointee to

²³Provisional appointments are those made for permanent positions in the civil service and are designed to last only until a permanent appointment can be made. Temporary appointments are those made for positions which are needed only for a short period of time.

²⁴Appointments in Houston for temporary work require a special council appropriation and therefore the job terminates when the appropriation is exhausted.

take a non-competitive examination.²⁵ According to a recent rule adopted by the Civil Service Board of this city, temporary or provisional appointments must be made from the eligible lists for other classes, provided the person is qualified to perform the duties of the position to be filled. While a more definite restriction should be placed on the time limit of provisional and temporary appointments, with authority being vested in the finance officer to enforce the restriction, Texas cities in general have been free from the abuses found in many jurisdictions.

Although the progress made by the personnel agencies of Texas cities in their efforts to combat the spoils system by recruitment on the basis of merit should be praised, it must nevertheless be said that the administration of the recruitment program has not benefited from the advanced techniques developed in other portions of the nation. Some signs of progress are found, however, in the instances of the newer personnel agencies which have parted ways with the practices of the older civil service commissions.

If an indictment of recruitment practices in Texas cities were required, it would contain among other things an account of the failure of cities to attract recruits from educational institutions, an inability to recognize the deteriorating effects of the local preference rule, the failure to employ the latest testing techniques, and an unwillingness to utilize the probationary period as a measurement of the attractiveness of its own recruiting process. These criticisms are vital in character and must be answered if the municipal civil service in this State is to be selected and directed in the proper manner.

As we shall have occasion to note in greater detail at a later point, the State has been delinquent in failing to assist its cities in the inauguration and administration of a merit program. It is apparent that many of the cities

²⁵A total of 108 appointments to temporary positions was made in Dallas from October 1, 1934, to September 30, 1935. *Annual Report of the Civil Service Board, Dallas, Texas, 1934-1935*, p. 7.

are unable to finance a recruitment program, although it must be added that this is in many instances more an excuse for inertia and inaction than a sound reason. It is evident that the merit system would receive an added impetus if the State should see fit to establish a personnel agency of its own which could be made to serve in an advisory capacity to the various municipal commissions. Although the outlook in this direction is anything but bright, due to the operation of the spoils system in the State government, it must be concluded that a realization of the full potentialities of the merit system in Texas cities awaits in part the inauguration of a progressive personnel policy by the State.

CHAPTER VII

TRAINING

Although the matter of training has been of primary import since the inception of the movement for an improved municipal civil service, it was only natural that it should have been shunted aside in the early days in favor of the more pressing problems of recruitment and tenure. Consequently, training only recently has come into its own. In recent years this part of the personnel problem has caught the public fancy in a manner not accorded other aspects of the civil service. And while this widespread interest offers an excellent opportunity for worthwhile accomplishments, it has the accompanying danger of encouraging an unwise program which can only react unfavorably on the entire movement. The significance of popular approval of training for the public service, then, must be recognized and supplemented by a contingent assumption of responsibility by those agencies — administrators, official associations, and universities — which have had a part in the training movement.

Training has been placed after recruitment in the present discussion since, despite the fact that an important part of the training program is of a pre-entry nature, most of the training programs found in Texas cities, and indeed throughout the nation, are for those already in the service. It will be the purpose here to review the motives and features of the training plans now employed or recommended, with some attention being devoted to programs of Texas cities. The natural division into pre- and post-entry training has been employed for purposes of convenience.

I. PRE-ENTRY TRAINING

Pre-entry training is concerned primarily with the educational background of a person planning to enter the government service. In the past the professional and scientific schools have made available a sufficient number of

trained engineers, lawyers, and other professional persons who have been equipped to handle the technical line functions of the various levels of government. There has been a lack, however, of an administrative class trained in the techniques and procedures of general administration. As one authority has said, "we are overlooking the fact that there is an art and science of administration"; the same person advises that "we should work toward the creation of an administrative class."¹ Since the remaining portion of the municipal personnel is made up largely of clerical classes such as stenographers, typists, or members of the skilled trades, who received their training in vocational schools and in actual work, our attention here will be devoted exclusively to pre-entry training as it relates to the administrative class.

It may appear to those acquainted with the size of the municipal personnel and with the large number of small cities in Texas that it is a bit fantastic to speak of the need of an administrative class. This criticism, which no doubt represents a widespread belief, is indicative of the gross misconception generally held as to the rôle of a municipal civil servant. Heretofore mention has been made from time to time of the operation of the career system, which is predicated on the elimination of local boundary lines in making appointments. If administrators in Texas were permitted to move to a larger city after a successful tenure in a small one and even to transfer to other jurisdictions such as the county, State, or nation, there might

¹Testimony of Mr. Clarence E. Ridley, Executive Director, International City Managers' Association, in Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel, *Minutes of Evidence* (New York, 1935), p. 230.

"In short, we need an administrative service because so many of the problems of today are problems of coördinating special services, forecasting growth, development of a particular area, problems of relating highly skilled and trained personnel in different fields into some common program, problems of control—in the large, what may be called general administrative staff services. . . ." Testimony of Mr. John M. Gaus, Professor of Political Science, University of Wisconsin, *ibid.*, p. 304.

well result a definite need in this State for training of this sort. Consequently, our discussion here, while based on future needs, nevertheless treats of a subject which is of great importance to the municipal civil service of this State.

The responsibility for the training of those desiring to enter the public service as administrators is divided between the universities and the governments themselves. A policy of coöperation must characterize the relations of these agencies, which should act concertedly in analyzing and meeting the educational needs of potential administrators. The success of this movement toward a trained administrative class depends in final analysis upon the governmental unit which, through a positive plan of recruitment, must agree to take such individuals into the service as employees. In short, the demand for the trained administrator must be created by the government itself. The responsibility of the university is primarily that of establishing and improving courses of study which will effect the successful training of individuals in the techniques of public administration. These prescriptions are easily stated; their realization, however, will not come without a serious struggle with tradition and general inertia.

Special training for the government service was inaugurated in 1911 by the New York Training School for the Public Service, under the direction of the New York Bureau of Municipal Research. Little was done in the years immediately following, and not until 1924 was there established a separate college training program for instruction in public administration. This program was inaugurated with the formation of the School of Citizenship and Public Affairs at Syracuse University.² Since that time other universities have established separate courses for

²William E. Mosher, "The Syracuse School of Citizenship and Public Affairs and Training for the Public Service," in *Proceedings of the Twenty-seventh Annual Meeting of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 1935*, pp. 84-88.

pre-entry training, until at the present time some thirty-five universities either have announced public service training programs or have them in the process of creation.

Some progress in this direction has been made by the universities of Texas.³ The Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College was one of the first to offer a graduate course in the training of city managers. Since 1935 The University of Texas has offered the degree of Master of Arts in Public Administration which requires one year of graduate work for completion.⁴ The degree rests largely upon courses offered in the departments of economics, government, and sociology. In addition, other courses which supplement those in the departments mentioned are offered in business administration, education, law, and psychology. Students pursuing this degree may concentrate in any one of four fields, namely public welfare administration, financial administration, administrative organization and operation, and police administration. The purpose of this degree is to enable a student to obtain a broad background in the social sciences and in certain tool subjects which will permit him to understand in general the structure of government and the interplay of the dominant social forces. A particular feature of the degree is that "it minimizes departmental lines, emphasizing the nature of the subject rather than the department or school in which it may be taught."⁵

Public administrators and educators disagree with each other and with their colleagues as to the nature of the curriculum of a training program for the public service. Questions arise as to the differences in the curricula to be offered those going into public life and those going into

³As early as 1913 The University of Texas was one of eight universities having research bureaus which combined study with practical administrative work. Leonard D. White, *Trends in Public Administration* (New York, 1933), p. 260.

⁴*Training for the Public Service*, The University of Texas Bulletin No. 3527 (July 15, 1935).

⁵*Ibid.*, p. 3.

private enterprise, as to specialization or general training, and as to the relative importance of technical and "practical" training. In connection with the problem, two reports have been issued which will assist in clarifying to some extent present-day thinking along these lines. Sponsored by the Public Administration Clearing House, a conference on training for the public service was held in 1935, which reported that it was

unable to find any single formula which warrants the establishment of an isolated university or college program which alone will emphasize preparation exclusively for the public service for the reasons that both public and private services include in general the same occupations and professions or scientific callings; the prevailing concepts and practices of education are acceptable and more or less the same whether applied to preparation for public or private services; and specific aspects of training for public service are associated largely with "in-service" or "post-entry" phases and therefore are not of primary concern to educational institutions.⁶

In pursuance of this conclusion, the conference recommended that undergraduate students contemplating entrance into the public service, either as administrators or as professional or scientific workers, should obtain

1. Insight into the kind of social structure in which government operates; the social forces which furnish the major drives in contemporary society; and trends in contemporary economic and social life;
2. A range of knowledge relating to the structure of government; the place of government in the social structure; and the principal operations of administration, especially staff operations; and
3. Proficiency in the use of certain "tools" or techniques desirable for administration, including statistics, accounting, oral and written English, stenography, library methods, especially as to sources for public documents and legal decisions.⁷

⁶Public Administration Service, *Training for the Public Service* (Chicago, 1935), p. vii.

⁷*Ibid.*, pp. vii-viii.

A second report limited to training for the municipal service was made in 1936 by a committee of the International City Managers' Association. This committee, like the earlier conference, frowned on a specialized course in training for the prospective public servant below the graduate level, although it clearly stated that "There is a distinct place for specific graduate schools for training public administrators."⁸ It recommended the establishment of a process of selection which will permit only qualified and interested students to continue studies in public administration and the restriction of the number of graduate students to approximately the number of openings in the municipal service. Graduate courses were suggested in public finance, personnel administration, statistics, public law, public relations, administrative measurement and control, social and economic planning, and the administration of line departments.⁹

It was the consensus of this group that the professional and scientific fields should be left to the professional schools, which have provided training of this nature in the past. Recommendations were made, however, with respect to the introduction of courses in the social sciences in the professional school. It was suggested by the committee "that a general undergraduate course in public administration of a cultural character be offered by universities, designed to attract not only liberal arts students but also students in the professional schools who seek a public service orientation of their courses of study."¹⁰

One who is trained only in the field of public administration, however, is not acquainted with technical knowledge of a character sufficient to permit him to enter directly into the work of a particular organization. Thus the municipal government must invest a certain amount of money in his time in order that he may become trained in the actual

⁸International City Managers' Association, *Training for Municipal Administration* (Chicago, 1936), p. 1.

⁹*Ibid.*, pp. 13-15.

¹⁰*Ibid.*, p. 2.

work of the department. This lack of special training, plus the unwillingness of cities in general to make the investment required, has restricted the chances of entry of persons not possessing technical training. As a remedy, it has been suggested that such persons might with some additional effort in the course of their educational careers take courses relating to specific fields, such as taxation, public expenditures, personnel administration, and city planning.¹¹ Under this arrangement the entrant would be qualified to enter directly into the activities of a staff department (as personnel or finance) and therefore could fit into the municipal service in a short time, thereby disposing of the complaints of many regarding the inability of college-trained individuals to do particular tasks.

Another pre-entry training device which has been utilized by Syracuse University and the University of Cincinnati is the internship.¹² The principle of the internship, which is recommended by the reports previously mentioned, is that the student designated as an interne will spend several months in the administrative service of some government, during which time he will be under the general direction of a university instructor and the specific direction of one or more public officials. Internships project the student into the actual stream of administration, and if a proper selection is made originally much experience of a beneficial nature can be obtained. The interne is paid no salary by the government and the nature of his work depends wholly upon the arrangements made among the parties concerned. He receives no promise of a permanent appointment, although in many instances he is selected by that or another unit immediately upon the completion of the training program. The principle of the internship, if properly directed, can be used with effectiveness in demolishing some of the

¹¹Institute for Training in Municipal Administration, *Municipal Personnel Administration* (Chicago, 1935), pp. 199-200.

¹²Otis T. Wingo, Jr., "Internships in Training for the Public Service," in *Proceedings of the Twenty-seventh Annual Meeting of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 1935*, pp. 89-93.

barriers now existing between public officials and the universities.¹³

At least a dawning recognition of the possibilities of pre-entry training is apparent in the training being offered in some of the higher educational institutions of Texas. Something more is needed, however, than mere recognition. While the developments of a career system and an administrative class must go hand in hand, many of the methods for their accomplishment remain to be isolated and analyzed. Due to the lack of adequate guideposts, as evidenced by the cautious procedure of those engaged in pre-entry training, it is evident that this matter might well form the subject for a conference of the university and public officials of this State. Not until educators and municipal officers become aware of the potential services which each group can render the other will there be a satisfactory pre-entry training program for Texas cities.

II. POST-ENTRY TRAINING

Turning to post-entry or in-service training, much more of actual accomplishment is discovered. This program is primarily the responsibility of the government itself operating through its personnel agency, although the universities are involved indirectly. In addition, it assumes large proportions in that it includes all municipal employees above the unskilled class, while pre-entry training is confined primarily to superior officials. There is the additional factor also that in-service training continues, supplements, and refines the pre-entry training of the individual. Much more has been accomplished both in Texas and in the nation in the field of post-entry than in pre-entry training.¹⁴

In-service training is found in varying degrees in practically every city, although in many instances it is not organized. Four general types of post-entry training have

¹³Public Administration Service, *op. cit.*, p. x.

¹⁴See John Edward Devine, *Post-Entry Training in the Federal Service* (Chicago, 1935).

been suggested.¹⁵ The first type comprehends the establishment of systematic instruction in the government departments by the use of classroom techniques. No instance of the employment of this plan by a city is known, although an interesting example of its use may be noted in the case of the federal Department of Agriculture. Several years ago the department established a graduate school and has offered a considerable number of courses relating to the techniques demanded of its employees.¹⁶ The experience of the Department of Agriculture is such as to suggest a serious consideration of the possibility of the employment of this plan by the city, although it is probable that it will be feasible in only the larger municipalities.

A second plan of in-service training involves the assignment of government employees to an educational institution for a particular period. Although this practice is not widespread, it may be noted that State and city employees in Austin and Dallas attend The University of Texas and Southern Methodist University respectively, while Fort Worth, Dallas, Beaumont, Tyler, and Lubbock encourage their employees to attend night school or take correspondence courses. With regard to the latter, the International City Managers' Association through its Institute for Training in Municipal Administration has prepared correspondence courses relating to public works administration, organization and functions of city government, fire administration, personnel administration, and the technique of municipal management.¹⁷ These courses are designed for the dual purpose of offering additional training to public administrators and of serving the needs of those desirous of becoming administrators.

¹⁵Public Administration Service, *op. cit.*, p. 1.

¹⁶*Civil Service Assembly News Letter*, Vol. I (August, 1935), pp. 2-3. See also W. W. Stockberger, "An Example of Post-Entry Training in the Public Service by Departments," in *Proceedings of the Twenty-seventh Annual Meeting of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 1935*, pp. 102-104.

¹⁷Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel, *op. cit.*, p. 232.

The third and most common type of post-entry training is found in the programs conducted by the city in which the employee is given instruction concerning specific tasks. This type of training is designed primarily for employees of lesser rank, although the progressive administrator will apply it with respect to certain of his subordinates in order to develop initiative, judgment, leadership, skill in public relations, and a professional attitude. One municipal personnel agency in Texas clearly recognized the importance of this part of the training program when it stated: "This Board again wants to recommend to the heads of all departments in the municipal government the importance of training recruits. Too much stress cannot be placed upon this as the success of any new employee depends largely upon the manner in which he is inducted into the service."¹⁸ The personnel director of Dallas is charged with the responsibility of arranging monthly lectures for those holding superior positions, and the first city manager of Dallas held seminars for junior and senior executives in his organization.

The cities in this State have gone farther in the training of firemen and policemen than in any other department. Of a total of twenty-five Texas cities between 10,000 and 100,000 population which furnished information on this subject, only five failed to offer a formal training program for firemen or policemen. Ten of these cities have training programs for firemen only, nine for both policemen and firemen, and one for police only. All Texas cities of 100,000 population and over have separate training programs with regular instructors for their fire departments. Impetus for a training program is found in the ruling passed by the Texas Fire Insurance Commission that all cities over 15,000 population are subject to a penalty in insurance rates if they do not employ a drill tower in the course of instruction.

¹⁸*Annual Report of the Civil Service Board, Dallas, Texas, 1934-1935*, p. 4.

The experience of Abilene with its "drill school and training college" constitutes a good example of the content of training courses for firemen. During 1934, 830 hours of drill tower work were given, in addition to which evening classes of one hour each were held six nights a week throughout the year. The curriculum included instruction in box and hydrant location, knots and hitches, first aid, care of equipment, hydraulics, chemistry, fire fighting tactics, and salvage. Regular instruction in first aid, which qualified all members to hold first-aid certificates, was given. The training course was made the basis for the promotional examinations held throughout the year.¹⁹ Schools of a similar character, although much more elaborate, are found in Dallas, Fort Worth, Houston, San Antonio, and El Paso.

Notwithstanding the evident fact that the training of policemen is equally as important as that of firemen, the former have not received the attention accorded the latter. This emphasis in favor of the firemen is explained by the facts that (1) training can be carried on during the regular tour of duty, (2) lower insurance rates act as a stimulus to improve fire fighting procedure, (3) state-wide short courses in fire fighting have increased the efficiency of the fire departments, and (4) the scientific character of fire protection lends itself well to a course of instruction, since it is fairly easily organized and presented.

Nothing like as extensive a program is found in the police field. Only one city, Dallas, maintains a police training school as a regular part of its police department. Several other cities, among which are Houston, El Paso, San Antonio, and Fort Worth, have conducted training programs at irregular intervals. The Dallas police training program has been maintained since 1931, and the older members of the department have completed a four-year course inaugurated in that year. This course includes instruction as to the effective use of firearms, first aid methods, jiu jitsu,

¹⁹This information was obtained from a typewritten report of the fire chief to the mayor of Abilene for 1934.

city geography, city ordinances, criminal law and procedure, and case reporting. El Paso's program is restricted to recruits and consists of a general training schedule designed to prepare them for specific tasks.²⁰ San Antonio inaugurated training classes for its patrolmen in 1935 which continued for a few months and offered instruction in first-aid, highway information, the use of legal forms, and jiu jitsu.²¹

The fourth plan of post-entry training takes the form of coöperative instruction exemplified in the "short courses" or "training institutes" sponsored by municipal leagues, organizations of municipal officials, and universities. According to an estimate made in 1935, approximately 350 training schools for city officials have been conducted by state municipal leagues since 1928.²² In many instances universities have made instructors and facilities available for these short courses.

The cities of Texas have experimented considerably with this type of training. The League of Texas Municipalities, organizations of city officials (for example, the Texas Chapter of the Municipal Finance Officers' Association), The University of Texas, and the Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College have assisted in conducting training programs. During 1936 the League of Texas Municipalities held some ten regional meetings throughout the State, which lasted for one day each and were attended by city officials from the immediate area. Problems confronting the cities were discussed in an informal meeting and a

²⁰*Police Training Course, El Paso, Texas* (1935).

²¹Texas cities in their police training programs have failed to use motion pictures, which have great promise for purposes of instruction. See Arnold Miles, "Motion Pictures in Police Training," *Civil Service Assembly News Letter*, Vol. I (November, 1935), pp. 1, 4-5.

²²Albert H. Hall, "Training Municipal Officials," *American Political Science Review*, Vol. XXIX (August, 1935), p. 65. A discussion of the obstacles faced by municipal leagues in conducting training programs and the presentation of a possible course of action to meet these difficulties are given by E. E. McAdams, "In-Service Training and the Municipal League," *Texas Municipalities*, Vol. XXIII (January, 1936), pp. 3-7.

profitable interchange of information resulted. The first Institute for Municipal Finance Officers was held in 1935 at Austin, with attention being devoted to tax collection, budgeting, debt administration, and related problems. In the same year, the seventeenth annual Waterworks Short Course was held, in addition to an annual conference of the Texas Public Health Association, which includes directors of public health.

By the end of 1935, two short courses for peace officers and six training schools for firemen had been held at Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College. The police school was inaugurated and sponsored jointly by the League of Texas Municipalities and the Agricultural and Mechanical College. The firemen's training school was organized through the influence of the State Firemen's and Fire Marshals' Association of Texas and is financed by a State appropriation which amounted to \$4,000 in 1935. In addition to an annual school, a field instructor is maintained, who visited 367 cities in 1934-1935 and contacted nearly 7,000 firemen.²³ In the conduct of this program the instructor has the additional duty of preparing in a usable form information relating to fire protection, which is distributed four times a year to all fire departments in the State.

In many respects the State of New York has furnished the leadership in the support of training schools for municipal officials. Under the sponsorship of the New York State Conference of Mayors a training program for firemen and policemen, begun in 1928, was expanded in 1931 to include many other city officials.²⁴ The attendance at 250 schools conducted from 1925 to 1935 numbered over 32,000 city and village officials. In 1935 the Municipal Training Institute of New York State was incorporated for the purpose of operating these schools.²⁵ Noteworthy as the first educational organization of this type in this country, the

²³*Proceedings of the Fifty-ninth Annual Convention of the State Firemen's and Fire Marshals' Association of Texas, 1935*, pp. 34-39.

²⁴*New York State Conference of Mayors, Municipal Training Schools in New York State* (Albany, 1934).

²⁵Albert H. Hall, *op. cit.*, p. 649.

Institute will conduct training schools for twenty groups of municipal officials.²⁶ Upon completion of the course, the official is granted a certificate issued under the authority of the State, and it is the hope of those in control that eventually this certificate will constitute a requirement for entrance into the municipal service.

Another training device of recent origin is the apprenticeship, which differs from the internship in that the apprentice receives an appointment to the service, a salary, and all the privileges of a regular employee. The apprentice may be assigned to one department or sent to several departments for short periods of service to become acquainted with the duties of various positions. Dallas has established a classified position of apprentice which is open to graduates of Texas colleges. The apprentice is assigned to different departments for a short time in each, and after a service of approximately nine months is appointed to the position for which he appears to be best qualified. Longview has employed an apprentice and Austin has recruited students from The University of Texas as part-time traffic patrolmen.

It stands to reason that the success of the apprentice plan will depend in large part upon the support accorded it by administrators. They must be in sympathy with the plan and must devote considerable attention to the apprentice if the program is to be worthwhile. The administrator assumes the rôle of a teacher and he should see that the apprentice is given work of a responsible character and not assigned to routine tasks.²⁷ The apprenticeship affords

²⁶Courses are given to policemen, firemen, financial officials, purchasing officials, assessors, public works officials, clerks, public welfare officials, park officials, building inspectors, civil service commissioners, sewage plant operators and sewer superintendents, milk and dairy inspectors, recreation officials, fire chiefs, police chiefs, water superintendents, and food inspectors.

²⁷International City Managers' Association, *op. cit.*, p. 17.

A survey of sixty-nine cities by the International City Managers' Association in 1934 revealed that only seventeen had employed apprentices in the preceding three years. See Clifford N. Amsden, "Personnel Administration," in *The Municipal Year Book, 1935*, p. 14.

another opportunity for attacking the local residence requirement, although few cities have employed this device to date.

The possibilities in Texas for training persons in the colleges and universities are significant, though educators and administrators must recognize their related responsibilities in this field and strive jointly to reach a solution of their problems. In no other instance is there more need for a sympathetic and intelligent relationship than between the universities and the cities in the matter of training for the public service. Post-entry training has significant potentialities in Texas due to the absence of many of the restrictive features of the traditional civil service program. On the other hand, this type of training must face the local preference rule found universally in this State.

Of considerable significance is the rapidly growing practice of providing short courses and institutes for city officials. The program followed in New York State offers real possibilities for future development in that it strikes at the very heart of the training problem by setting up a separate school and granting certificates for completion of the course. This plan has many of the advantages which private professional agencies have found beneficial, and if properly administered and directed offers great hope for the future. The possibility of applying such a plan to Texas should be studied with care. Organizations already in existence have demonstrated the need for this type of training although, save in one or two instances, there has been only a beginning. Much could be accomplished through a pooling of the efforts of the several agencies interested in training. Although many obstacles appear, the achievements in other states indicate that such a program is well worthwhile since it offers an opportunity to approach closer to the goal of a well-trained and competent personnel.

CHAPTER VIII

IN-SERVICE PROBLEMS: PROMOTIONS, SERVICE RATINGS, AND REMOVALS

Attention thus far has been devoted primarily to the external aspects of personnel administration. It now becomes necessary to transfer our attention to some of the more important problems arising in the day-to-day operation of the personnel system. Since the problems to be considered are those arising in the course of the ordinary operation of the city, they have been termed "in-service" problems. The present chapter will consider promotion, service ratings, and removals, while the following chapter will treat of political activities, organizations, and welfare. The fact should be emphasized at the outset that these several features of the municipal civil service are not mutually exclusive, but on the contrary are closely interrelated. The somewhat arbitrary division made here is merely for purposes of emphasis and convenience in discussion.

I. PROMOTIONS

Once the proper type of recruit has been employed in the public service, the matter of promotion assumes a paramount position. According to the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel, the benefits to be derived from a proper system of promotion are: "first, it makes the service attractive to promising young men who will not enter an employment which is known not to give the opportunity of advancement based on proved merit; second, it results in an energetic staff by displacing the stagnant atmosphere of a stationary service; and, third, it brings to the top positions men who combine energy with knowledge of public administration, rather than partisans, amateurs, or men, with or without energy, who do not know the public service."¹ Other benefits are a reduction in the turnover of employees who otherwise would leave to seek higher salaried

¹Report of the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel, *Better Government Personnel* (New York, 1935), p. 47.

positions elsewhere, the lower training costs resulting from this reduction of turnover, and an improved morale which should make for a more stable and efficient working force.

The lack of a proper scheme of promotion results in the development of certain harmful practices. These have been listed as "(1) absence of equal opportunity as between employees in different departments, (2) promotion of less capable over the more capable, (3) promotion on basis of irrelevant motives as personal friendship, political influence, etc., (4) inadequate opportunity as compared with industry or with well organized governments, (5) loss of initiative of potentially alert employees, (6) general dissemination of irritation among all employees, and (7) cultivation of cliques and currying of favor."² No employee can be expected to perform to the best advantage if he foresees that his efforts will likely be overlooked or go unrewarded.

Promotion as the term is presently applied involves not only a salary increase but a change to a higher position. Advancement, on the other hand, ordinarily results in a salary increase with the employee retaining the same position and performing the same duties. As can be seen, a classification system is a fundamental prerequisite to a promotion and advancement plan. It would be difficult if not impossible to build a career system in the absence of a classification scheme indicating the definite line of promotion from a lower to a higher post.

In the formulation of promotion policies three questions arise which constitute the basis for the present discussion. First, there is the matter of determining whether vacancies in the higher positions are to be filled entirely by promotion from the lower levels or whether individuals from outside the service are to be eligible for appointment to these posts. A second question turns on the factors to be considered in selecting the person to promote. A third question, which is related directly to the second, involves the location of the promoting authority.

²Leonard D. White, *Introduction to the Study of Public Administration* (New York, 1926), p. 305.

The limitation of promotion to persons already in the service makes for a "closed" promotion system, while if persons outside the service are made eligible it is termed "open." It is very difficult to arrive at a conclusion as to the respective merits of the open and closed systems of promotion. Granting that the proponents of both plans are desirous of creating a competent public service, it is evident that the closed system will increase the opportunity for progression within the service, attract a better type of recruit, and improve morale. The open system, on the other hand, will serve to keep the public service open to competent persons in private employment and induct "new blood" with its fresh viewpoints into the municipal service. The type of position to be filled and the availability of suitable human material in the lower ranks will guide the employing agent to some extent in his selection. Certain posts of a technical or administrative nature in all likelihood cannot be filled by promotion from the lower ranks, since no person with the required ability or training can ordinarily be found. Thus El Paso in 1936 permitted applicants from outside the city to take the examination for the position of chemist in the water department. The techniques heretofore employed, as has been noted, have tended to recruit specialists and not individuals with that broad outlook and training so necessary for an administrator. It is evident, however, that the upper reaches of the municipal service should not be closed completely to outsiders until the recruiting system is so administered as to permit the induction of a competent and equipped class of potential administrators into the lower ranks of the service. Pursuit of the contrary course, so long as the present methods of filling these offices are continued, would lead to a state of decadence in the higher positions.

A careful consideration of this point led one student to propose the following as the guiding principles in a proper promotion plan:

1. All vacancies in positions above the lowest rank in any service, whose duties are not principally concerned with the determination of policies, should be filled by promotion of the

best qualified employees in lower ranks who will accept promotion, whenever there are such employees who are able to qualify under appropriate standards, rigidly maintained, and who will accept promotion.

2. Determination of whether there are qualified employees available, and which are the best, should be by means of competitive promotion tests open to all employees in lower ranks who can demonstrate the minimum amount and kind of experience prescribed as necessary to qualify.

3. Where doubt prevails as to whether persons qualified for promotion can be found in the service, open competitive entrance tests may be held simultaneously with promotion tests, but with the announced understanding that the eligibles qualifying through the open competitive tests will not be appointed as long as there are eligibles qualifying through promotion tests.³

If the city pursues a regular policy of filling vacancies by promotions from within the service, it should take care not to limit the progression to those within the department. Adoption of such a limitation would mean that the subordinate in the smaller departments in effect would be forbidden promotion. Moreover, it would have the further ill effect of limiting the field of selection. While it is evident that the experience gained in a particular position will be of some assistance in performing the functions of a higher position in the same department, the advisable policy is to consider the service as a unit and open the promotional examinations to all employees who can qualify regardless of their department. The plan should not be so rigid as to restrict promotion to those in the next lowest class in the department but instead should be open to all departmental employees in lower positions who can qualify for the appointment.⁴

³Frank O. Everett, *Promotion Principles and Practices* (Civil Service Assembly and Bureau of Public Personnel Administration, 1929), p. 1.

⁴"Department and other organization lines and geographical location should be almost or entirely disregarded in promotion tests, and the service should be treated as a whole, the best qualified employee

Various methods for making promotions are found in Texas cities, although the predominating practice is to give preference to persons already in the service. Seventeen out of twenty-four cities between 10,000 and 100,000 population are partial to their own employees in filling vacancies by promotion, while the remaining seven make no distinction. For some years Dallas, Fort Worth, and El Paso have followed the closed system of promotion, while Houston only recently has adopted this policy for its civil service. Alone among the major cities, San Antonio permits both plans to operate, the decision resting primarily with the elected commissioner and the department head.

In the construction of a proper promotion scheme it is necessary that three factors be considered, namely promotional examinations, seniority, and service ratings. Ordinarily no one of these factors is used to the exclusion of all others, and as in the instance of open and closed promotions there is no general agreement here as to the proper combination to be made or the relative weights to be assigned to the three. Promotional tests offer the advantage of placing all applicants on an equal basis, guaranteeing equal opportunity, and eliminating personal favoritism. Although promotional examinations may be used when the promoting officer has unlimited powers of promotion, they are employed ordinarily when the central personnel agency has some responsibility and authority in this regard. Promotional examinations need not be as intensive as entrance tests, since the appointing officer may be expected to know something of the actual ability of the applicant from his service record and the supervisory contacts which have occurred.⁵

being promoted without regard to the organizational unit or geographical location in which he has been serving or that in which the vacancy exists." *Ibid.*, p. 2.

⁵Promotional examinations have been criticized as failing to recognize that the candidate has been working for the government and that the preparation for the examination may interfere with his duties. See Lucius Wilmerding, *Government By Merit* (New York, 1935), paragraphs 442-445, p. 165.

When used as the sole basis for promotion, seniority has definite limitations. It is defended as being a simple and definite principle on which to base promotions, and on the additional ground that there is a positive correlation between length of service and ability to perform the required duties. Seniority is weak in that it fails to make provision for the promotion of the young employee of exceptional ability. Seniority is a proper basis, perhaps, for promotion in the lower ranks where routine tasks predominate and length of service may be an accurate measure of ability to accomplish. This situation does not prevail with regard to the higher posts, however, for there special qualifications and not length of service alone should be the dominating factor. In measuring those qualifications, promotional tests and service ratings may be employed, which offer the additional advantage of permitting the appointing officer to have an active part in the promotion process.

A total of twenty-one Texas cities below 100,000 population supplied information as to the factors influencing promotion. Examinations have been used in only one instance, and this in the Abilene fire department, where all those who had been in the service for three years prior to April 20, 1934, were reduced to the rank of private and given a promotional examination. Each man was allowed one point on the examination for each year of service, and those making the highest average grades were appointed to the positions of captain and assistant chief. One city below 100,000 population uses service ratings. Six cities employ seniority alone, seven base promotions on seniority and past performance determined by the judgment of a superior, and seven (including Abilene) permit unrestricted promotion by the department heads.

The plan of promotion in Houston, as provided by definite and detailed rules, stipulates that tests, seniority, and efficiency ratings are to be used in determining promotions.⁶

⁶*Civil Service Rules and Regulations, City of Houston, Rule VI, Secs. 1, 14-15.*

As a matter of practice, efficiency ratings are not considered in the making of promotions. Dallas has used promotional tests, although not to the exclusion of other factors. Written and oral examinations are given and seniority and efficiency ratings have a part in the final determination of the eligible list. Accompanying this is an estimate, furnished by the department head, as to the worth of the employee to his particular department. In recent years promotional tests have been given in Dallas for the posts of police sergeant, fire lieutenant, assistant fire chief, deputy fire chief, senior stenographer, nurse supervisor, senior accountant, and filter plant operator.⁷ A total of fifty-two promotions were made in 1934-1935 and eighty-one in the previous year.⁸

Promotions in the fire and police departments in San Antonio are made by the fire and police commissioner, who is limited by the requirement that a person shall have served at least two years in the next lower position.⁹ Efforts of the Civil Service Board to introduce examinations and service ratings as a part of the promotional procedure have been unavailing to date. Fort Worth provides promotional examinations for vacancies, with the requirement that a person must serve a minimum of six months in the next lower position before being eligible for promotion.¹⁰ In actual practice Fort Worth in recent years has used

⁷In determining the final grade of an applicant for promotion in the fire department, the written examination counts 40 per cent, physical examination 15 per cent, judgment 15 per cent, morale 10 per cent, character 10 per cent, and mechanical ability 10 per cent. Only five names are placed on the police and fire promotional lists.

⁸*Annual Report of the Civil Service Board, Dallas, Texas, 1934-1935*, p. 12.

⁹*Civil Service Code of the City of San Antonio, Texas*, Secs. 37-43.

¹⁰*Civil Service Rules and Regulations, City of Fort Worth, Texas*, Rule 15, Sec. 1. Dallas has the same requirement of six months' service in the next lower position prior to promotion. *Rules and Regulations of the Civil Service Board, City of Dallas, Texas*, Rule XIV, Sec. 2.

promotional examinations only in the fire and police departments.¹¹

Although promotional examinations are required by the civil service rules in the El Paso fire and police departments, they have been employed only in the former unit, where they are given annually. To be eligible for these promotional examinations, the employee must serve for twelve months in the next lower position, and extra points are granted for seniority which must not exceed one-tenth of the total grade.¹² Vacancies in higher positions under the jurisdiction of the Civil Service Commission of El Paso are filled by competitive examinations limited to those already in service, with seniority and service ratings being employed in fixing the final grade. If only one person applies for the promotional examination, an original entrance examination must be held for the position, which is then filled according to the regular recruiting procedure.¹³

Under the promotion plans previously noted the personnel agency, except in San Antonio, has a part in the process. Many persons, however, favor the policy of placing complete appointive power, in the instance of higher positions, in the hands of the department head, thus giving him unrestrained freedom in the making of promotions. It is argued that this arrangement would permit promotions or appointments to higher positions to be made by one who is intimately acquainted with the particular requirements of the position. It is likely that this method is the only feasible one in small cities where promotions are infrequent. For larger units of government, however, it is best to modify the plan so as to guarantee at least a modicum of knowledge on the part of the person promoted. This may be accomplished through an examination, although this process

¹¹In the construction of a list of eligibles for promotion to the position of fire lieutenant the promotional examination counts 75 per cent, seniority 10 per cent, and service ratings 15 per cent.

¹²*Fire and Police Civil Service Rules of El Paso* (1917), Rule VII, Secs. 2, 4.

¹³*Code of Rules and Regulations of the El Paso Civil Service Commission*, Secs. 21-22.

is subject to certain deficiencies. It has been suggested that an advisory board be formed to consult with the department head on his choice, or that the personnel agency supervise promotions with a view to seeing that the most capable are considered. Until the virulence of the spoils system is lessened in Texas cities, it is probable that the personnel agency should continue to exercise some authority in the making of promotions.

Although strictly not a part of promotion, advancement—that is, an increase in salary without a corresponding change of duties or position—is closely related thereto and deserves brief mention. In the discussion of classification the desirability of a salary range for every class was noted. New recruits should be started at the minimum salary unless special considerations warrant a higher rate, and this rate should be determined by the department head in consultation with the personnel officer. Progressive personnel administration frowns upon automatic salary increments, since once the employee is assured of definite salary increases at regular intervals so long as he remains in the service, he is likely to permit this to affect his work. Service ratings, which will be discussed later, should be experimented with here in an effort to stimulate the employees to more vigorous action. The direct responsibility for determining pay increases based upon efficiency belongs to the department head, with the personnel agency being concerned indirectly through consultation.

Automatic salary increments are found in some of the larger cities, particularly in the safety services. Firemen and policemen in Dallas receive a salary of \$115 at entrance. Successive increases of \$10 are made at the end of three, six, and twelve months' service, which results in attaining the maximum basic salary of \$145. By charter provision an additional increase in compensation based on the number of years of service is provided.¹⁴ After ten years of continuous service an increase of \$5 in the monthly salary is granted. After fifteen years the amount increases to \$7.50;

¹⁴*Charter of the City of Dallas* (1931), Sec. 78.

after twenty years to \$10; and after twenty-five to a maximum of \$15 per month. This automatic increase has not operated thus far in Dallas to increase the expenditures for personal services, due to the turnover in employment occasioned by retirement and the effect of promotions which result in the employees' receiving the minimum salaries in the higher classifications.

Houston sets the entrance salary for firemen and policemen at \$90 per month and grants a \$5 increase every six months until the maximum of \$105 is reached. The salaries of police captains range from \$160 to \$225 per month. The civil service rules of Houston provide that advancement shall be made on the basis of efficiency and seniority.¹⁵ Fort Worth likewise employs automatic salary increases for firemen and policemen which amount to \$5 per month after six months of service, \$7 after the following six months, and \$9 after an additional year. Patrolmen in El Paso receive salaries ranging from \$110.50 to \$130 per month. In the El Paso fire department, first-year firemen are paid \$117 per month, second-year firemen, \$126, and third-year firemen, \$135. San Antonio provides no advancement in pay for its safety departments; promotion forms the only source of pay increase. In the group of Texas cities between 10,000 and 100,000 population, only three out of a total of twenty-five have a general policy of salary advancement for all employees. Ten other cities reported definite pay advances for particular services, generally those of fire and police, while twelve make no provision for salary advancements.

Only in those Texas cities possessing a formal merit system is there anything approaching a definite promotion policy. Even here, however, most of the cities have failed to realize the potential benefits to the service accruing from a proper promotion plan. Of the six cities with formal merit systems, five permit the personnel agency to play some part in the promotion process, while only one limits that

¹⁵*Civil Service Rules and Regulations, City of Houston*, Rule I, Sec. 13.

agency to recruitment alone. The general policy of restricting promotions to those within the service is a regrettable feature of municipal personnel administration in Texas, since the lack of effective recruiting procedures, plus the consequent failure to attract a suitable type of recruit, has resulted usually in limiting severely the ability of those available for promotion. Until this policy is changed and a better type of recruit is obtained, Texas cities should not employ a closed system of promotions.

II. SERVICE RATINGS

Service ratings are at the same time one of the most useful devices in personnel administration and one of the most difficult to employ properly. As commonly used, service ratings are designed to measure and evaluate the ability and effectiveness of individual employees in performing their duties. The benefits to be derived from a successful service rating system include (1) the revelation to an employee of his own faults which he may correct, (2) the granting of salary increases on the basis of performance, (3) the determination of those deserving promotion, (4) the elimination of those not performing satisfactorily, (5) the removal of the least desirable employees in times of retrenchment, (6) the validation of recruiting methods by measuring performance, (7) the protecting of the employee against sudden dismissal after years of efficient service, and (8) considering the requests of employees for certain privileges on the basis of worth.¹⁶

Despite these desirable features, however, the difficulties in the way of objective, scientific, and accurate service ratings have not as yet been surmounted. As one authority has noted, the four main problems involved in the construction and administration of service ratings are "(1) the selection of the right criteria to measure efficiency, (2) the assurance of accurate judgments in relation to these

¹⁶William Brownrigg, "Service Ratings—An Unsolved Problem," *Civil Service Observer*, Vol. 2 (April, 1934), p. 41.

criteria, (3) the continued coöperation of busy administrators in handling the records, and (4) the attitude of the employees."¹⁷

The determination of the traits which should be appraised in measuring an employee's work is a perplexing matter, since these characteristics are often of such an intangible nature as "neatness and bearing," "attitude toward his duty," "application," "ability to learn," "speed," "initiative," and "judgment." In evaluating such characteristics it is almost impossible for the rater to prevent the personal element from entering into his calculations. Personal prejudices may enter directly into the rating procedure and be used either for or against the employee. Furthermore, the standards of grading may vary between officers or between different departments, since some persons rate uniformly high and others uniformly low. The superior officer also may have little confidence in the service ratings and may perform the duty in a perfunctory manner, feeling it to be an unnecessary encroachment on his time. One department head in a Texas city dismissed efficiency ratings as being impractical because there was too much politics involved. Finally, the employees themselves in many instances object to the ratings on the grounds that they are subjective or because of the mysterious formulas used to arrive at a final grade. It is evident that the employees must be convinced of the accuracy and impartiality of the rating system before it can be used effectively.¹⁸

Notwithstanding the difficulties apparent in the administration of a service rating plan, and despite the fact that there exists at the present time no rating scheme which is wholly satisfactory, it is nevertheless interesting to note that most personnel directors emphasize the importance of

¹⁷Leonard D. White, *op. cit.*, p. 316.

¹⁸Dallas has made an effort to stimulate the interest and coöperation of the employees by mailing their ratings directly to them and issuing an invitation to review the detailed record in the personnel office. Many employees have taken advantage of this opportunity. *Annual Report of the Civil Service Board, Dallas, Texas, 1934-1935*, p. 1.

this method of determining individual performance. One authority states that "Almost any rating system that is based on intelligent analysis of the factors of efficiency involved and that is consistently and intelligently applied, will give results of considerable value."¹⁹ Even though incomplete and admittedly deficient in their measuring abilities, service ratings may, if properly administered by trained raters, be used with considerable profit by municipal personnel agencies.

It is not possible here to enter into a discussion of the various types of service ratings. Without exception their effectiveness is limited, due to the subjective element which enters into the final calculations.²⁰ Despite the fact that none of the rating schemes has stood the test of time, it will be profitable to examine briefly one of the latest rating systems which to some extent eliminates the subjective element.

The Probst service report, which bears the name of its author, Mr. J. B. Probst, chief examiner of the St. Paul Civil Service Bureau, has been in use for a few years. It contains about ninety-five items which the rater checks, among which are such terms as "lazy," "talks too much," "easily rattled," "often forgetful," "active but not strong,"

¹⁹Edwin O. Griffenhagen, "Personnel in Government," in *Proceedings of the Sixth Eastern States Regional Conference of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 1935*, p. 17. Mr. G. Lyle Belsley, Executive Director of the Civil Service Assembly, agrees with Mr. Griffenhagen. See the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel, *Minutes of Evidence* (New York, 1935), p. 578.

²⁰The various rating systems which have been developed and employed are described briefly in Samuel H. Ordway, Jr., and John C. Laffan, "Approaches to the Measurement and Reward of Effective Work of Individual Government Employees," *National Municipal Review*, Supplement, Vol. XXIV (October, 1935), pp. 559-569. This study considers "the subject of employee rating with particular reference to the New York City Civil Service, based on studies of existing service rating systems, prior service rating attempts in New York City, and the researches, writings, and experiments of some authorities in this field." A new service rating is suggested by the authors.

and "work always up to date." Under the Probst system the supervising officer merely checks the existence of certain traits which characterize the individual employee and does not indicate the degree to which he thinks any of these traits are found. Any trait which the rater feels is not applicable is left blank. Each employee is rated or checked by three supervisory officers who do not know the weight or value of their checks, and the final score is the composite judgment of all three. Different forms have been devised for various services or positions. The total score is determined by a mechanical rating system and is expressed in the letters "A" to "E."

The Probst rating system was constructed only after much experimentation and trial, and represents a careful effort to make service ratings scientific. Many advantages are claimed for it and it is evidently more objective than many of its predecessors. On the other hand, it has been subjected to considerable criticism in recent months, and no doubt further study will force a considerable refinement in the light both of these criticisms and of the experiences of the cities employing it.²¹

Service ratings have been employed in Texas cities only to a limited extent. Dallas has applied the Probst system with some satisfaction, although by no means has it solved all the problems of rating.²² Waco also employs the Probst system to a limited extent. The San Antonio Fire and Police Civil Service Board is attempting to formulate efficiency records which will be accurate and useful.²³ Service ratings are used in Houston in the fire and police departments but they are poorly constructed and indifferently administered and therefore have little meaning. The Civil Service Commission apparently makes little or no use of the ratings.

²¹For criticisms of the Probst rating system, see Samuel H. Ordway, Jr., and John C. Laffan, *op. cit.*, pp. 563-566, and William Brownrigg, *op. cit.*, pp. 42-43.

²²John N. Edy, "Civil Service as a City Manager Sees It," *Civil Service Observer*, Vol. 2 (November, 1934), pp. 137-139.

²³*Annual Report of the Fire and Police Civil Service Board, San Antonio, 1934-1935* (typewritten).

The Fort Worth civil service rules provide for efficiency ratings for all departments,²⁴ but the fire and police services are the only departments employing them at the present time. The efficiency ratings used in the Fort Worth fire department are similar to those in San Antonio. Although provided for in the rules, no efficiency ratings have been used in the El Paso fire and police departments for several years.²⁵ The El Paso Civil Service Commission has not constructed a system of efficiency ratings as yet, although required to do so by its rules.²⁶

The failure of Texas cities to utilize service ratings to a greater extent is not surprising, since there is general dissatisfaction with the present systems. Regardless of this, however, the personnel agency should insist on some experimentation with service ratings, since only through a rating plan can important improvements be effected. That the success of a service rating system depends in large part on its administration does not require reiteration, since the most scientific rating plan yet devised can be made to look ridiculous in the hands of an unsympathetic administrator. The weaknesses of the rating plan should be recognized and constant efforts should be made to eliminate those subjective features which cause dissatisfaction. The benefits to be derived from such a system make it imperative that continued efforts be made to construct a better plan. Under no condition should the difficulties inherent in the construction and administration of service ratings be permitted to obscure the need for a device of this sort.

III. REMOVALS

Disciplinary action may take any of several different forms. The simplest type consists of a reprimand, which permits the superior officers to direct the employee's attention to a delinquency. Many maladjustments may be

²⁴*Civil Service Rules and Regulations, City of Fort Worth, Texas*, Rule 14.

²⁵*Fire and Police Civil Service Rules of El Paso*, Rule XII.

²⁶*Code of Rules and Regulations of the El Paso Civil Service Commission*, Sec. 91.

corrected by a reassignment of duties or a transfer to another department. Demerits, which may result in the payment of a fine or a lower efficiency rating, are frequently employed. Suspension without pay constitutes another mode of disciplining, although this is used sparingly since it operates ordinarily against members of the employee's family. Severer methods are sometimes used, such as a reduction in pay, demotion to a lower position, or forfeiture of seniority rights. Finally, an outright removal from the service is necessary in some instances and, due to the many unsolved problems still connected with this type of discipline, it will receive primary attention here.

Removal, as related to the public service, presents a dual problem. Competent, efficient, and industrious employees must be guarded against removal for political, racial, religious, personal, or other arbitrary reasons. On the other hand, inefficient and incompetent employees should be separated from the service.²⁷ To date such attention as has been devoted to removals has been concerned almost wholly with the first problem while little or no consideration has been given to the second, which in many respects is as important as the first. It was but natural, however, that early attention should have been centered on the protective feature, since the development of the merit system came directly as a result of public reaction against wholesale partisan removals. This feature of the merit system is the one most liable to attack at the present time since administrative officers regard a rigid merit system as a bar to the removal of inferior employees from the public service. This belief is widespread and deserves the close consideration of those interested in an improved personnel.²⁸

²⁷"Removals in the Public Service," *Public Personnel Studies*, Vol. 6 (February, 1928), pp. 24-25.

²⁸Mr. George M. Link, Secretary of the Minneapolis Board of Estimate and Taxation, testified that one of the chief weaknesses of the civil service system is that it is difficult to deal with incompetence by removal or to retrench through a reduction in personnel. Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel, *op. cit.*, p. 338. Mr. A. E. Stockburger, Director of Finance of the State of California,

It is desirable in any organization that the causes for removals and other disciplinary actions be stated definitely in the personnel rules and regulations. This is a general practice in the fire and police departments but many cities have neglected to make the same rules for the remaining city departments. Although the causes for removals vary in different municipalities, those employed in Dallas offer a usable summary of the offenses generally resulting in dismissal. The city manager of Dallas may remove an employee for (1) committing a felony, (2) intoxication, (3) flagrant and persistent insubordination, (4) inciting to strike, (5) conduct subversive of proper order or discipline, (6) misuse of public funds, (7) falsifying reports and records, (8) sustained conduct detrimental to the efficiency or morale of the service, and (9) incompetence.²⁹ The manager may also "dismiss for the general good of the service" upon the joint recommendation of the department head and the personnel director (assistant director of finance), and he may also effect a removal for certain specific causes listed in the rules and regulations of the fire and police departments. El Paso prescribes as justification for removal such additional reasons as failure to pay the poll or property tax, conviction of an offense involving moral turpitude, political activity, use of offensive language, and use of habit-forming drugs.³⁰ The causes for removal in the remaining cities with formal merit systems embrace most of those mentioned in the instances of Dallas and El Paso.

Although the methods employed in specific cities to effect removals vary, it is possible to combine them into four

stated: "As I see it, the weakest spot in the personnel system as set up today, is the process of elimination for physical unfitness, mental incompetence, and possibly poor morale. In many of our governmental units it is next to impossible to discharge an employee, and usually when the discharge occurs, the employee is not on trial at all." *Ibid.*, p. 426.

²⁹*Personnel Regulations, City of Dallas, Texas*, pp. 19-20.

³⁰*Code of Rules and Regulations of the El Paso Civil Service Commission*, Sec. 50.

groups. These include removals by (1) the superior officer alone, (2) the superior officer with the right of appeal to the personnel agency or city council for a hearing, (3) a trial board after charges have been filed by the superior officer, and (4) the courts.³¹

The method of removal by the superior officer alone is favored by those in charge, since they argue that the power of removal must follow the power of appointment if discipline is to be maintained and that the superior official is intimately acquainted with the employee and can judge his performance accurately. Long experience with this plan under the spoils system, however, resulted in general disfavor since it did not either protect the employee from arbitrary removal or expedite the separation of incompetents from the civil service.³² Only two Texas cities with populations of 10,000 and above were found in which the power of removal is vested entirely in the superior officer; in each instance these are manager cities with the employee having no right of appeal for a trial or hearing. With these exceptions, cities not employing a formal personnel agency permit the appointing officer to separate employees from the service with the right of appeal to the city council. Of twenty-two Texas cities between 10,000 and 100,000 population, eleven provide for removal by the city manager on the recommendation of the department head with the dismissed employee having the right of appeal to the city council; six municipalities of the mayor-council type permit the mayor and heads of departments to remove, with the right of appeal to the governing body; and five cities allow removals only by formal action of the city council.³³

³¹"Removals in the Public Service," *Public Personnel Studies*, Vol. 6 (February, 1928), pp. 25-26.

³²*Ibid.*, pp. 28-31.

³³The charters of cities in this group ordinarily contain provisions relating to the methods of removal. The charters often prohibit removals for arbitrary reasons or without cause and in some instances exempt certain officials from the removal authority of the manager or mayor.

In the six cities having a formal merit system the prevailing rule as to removals is to permit the department head or city manager to exercise this authority with the restriction that written charges regarding the reasons for such action must be submitted to the personnel agency. The employee is given the right to appeal from this decree either to the civil service commission or to a special trial board.³⁴ Waco and Houston provide that the appeal must be filed in ten days while in El Paso a thirty-day filing period is permitted. In each of these cities the hearing is conducted by the civil service commission. Dallas, Fort Worth, and San Antonio require the appeal to be filed in ten days and specify that the hearing must be before a special trial board which, in each instance, consists of two members of the city council and one member of the civil service commission. Their decision is final. Laborers in El Paso are permitted to appeal to the Civil Service Commission if dismissed from the service; the decision of the Commission is final. During 1934-1935 four appeals were heard by the San Antonio trial board. In the same period in Dallas only one case was appealed to the trial board and in this instance the action of the manager and the department head was sustained.³⁵ Appeals have been even less frequent in Fort Worth, Houston, and El Paso.

The removal procedure heretofore discussed implies an actual discharge by the department head which becomes final if the employee does not apply for a hearing within a stipulated time limit. In some instances the trial board

³⁴Provisions relating to the removal procedures in the cities having a central personnel agency may be found in the *Charter of the City of Houston* (1927), Art. V-a, Sec. 3; *Rules and Regulations of the Civil Service Board, City of Dallas, Texas*, Rules XVI-XVII; *Civil Service Rules and Regulations, City of Fort Worth, Texas*, Rules XVII-XVIII; *Charter of the City of San Antonio* (1931), Secs. 146-147; *Code of Rules and Regulations of the El Paso Civil Service Commission*, Secs. 51-69; *Fire and Police Civil Service Rules of El Paso*, Rule VIII; and *Rules and Regulations of the Waco Civil Service Board* (1936), pp. 11-13.

³⁵*Annual Report of the Civil Service Board, Dallas, Texas, 1934-1935*, p. 4.

may take the initiative in making the removal with charges being preferred by a superior officer or other persons. Dallas, San Antonio, Fort Worth, and Waco provide that three or more citizens may prefer written charges of misconduct against any officer or employee before the civil service board. The board may hold a preliminary hearing and, if it deems the charges to be of sufficient gravity, bring the accused employee before it for a hearing before making a final decision. This procedure has been used on several occasions in San Antonio since 1932 but it has been of little importance in the other cities.

The adoption of trial boards as features of the removal procedure has become widespread in recent years due in large part to the activities of employees who regard this agency as a safeguard against arbitrary and unjust removals. Those opposing the trial board argue that it protects the employee unduly by making removals impossible except in flagrant cases, thus undermining the authority of the appointive official and distorting the working relations between the employee and supervisor. One of the most extensive studies along this line concludes that "The personnel agency when serving as a trial board may and in most jurisdictions actually does conduct removal investigations and hearings in such a way as to preserve the rights and dignity of the appointing authority, at the same time giving due consideration to the employee's side of the case."³⁶ The Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel adopted the contrary view when it found that "In many jurisdictions . . . the disciplinary procedure amounted to a trial of the department head rather than of the employee, so strict were the tenure safeguards."³⁷ Much of the difficulty surrounding removals might be dissolved if the personnel

³⁶"Removals in the Public Service," *Public Personnel Studies*, Vol. 6 (February, 1928), p. 35.

³⁷Report of the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel, *op. cit.*, p. 51.

agency were less independent and more intimately connected with the administrative process.

In three cities employees have been discharged because their service rating scores fell below the minimum set by the civil service commission. Fifteen discharges from the fire department have been ordered in Fort Worth, one in San Antonio, and six in Dallas. The Dallas removals were disputed in court and the ruling of an appellate tribunal was that these employees were entitled to receive salaries for the remainder of their term of appointment because of the lack of written charges and the refusal to grant them a hearing before a trial board.³⁸ This decision does not determine finally the authority of the city to dismiss for low service ratings alone.

Removal by the courts has proved a most unsatisfactory procedure. This procedure has failed to protect the rights of the employee since the expense of legal proceedings operates to prevent most employees from using this method of protection. As a general rule, the courts will guarantee the employee the right of a hearing but, in the absence of fraud, will not undertake an examination of the evidence in the case. The lack of formal merit systems in the governmental jurisdictions of this State has operated to limit litigation of this character. In one case, however, the right of an employee to a hearing before the civil service commission was upheld.³⁹

³⁸*McDonald v. City of Dallas*, 69 S.W. (2d) 175 (1934).

³⁹*Ellis v. Holcombe*, 69 S.W. (2d) 449 (1934). This case involved the discharge of the superintendent of the police identification bureau by the mayor. The discharged employee appealed for a hearing which was refused. The court held that the mayor could not discharge employees in the classified service at will; that the mayor's preference for another person was not a sufficient cause to remove the incumbent; that the plea of the necessity of a reduction of expenses was not sufficient to remove since (1) the civil service rules provided that reductions should begin in the lower classes of the service, and (2) the incumbent was willing to work at the salary paid his successor; and that all discharges must be made by the department heads with the classified employee possessing the right of appeal.

Dallas has organized a departmental trial board in the police department consisting of at least eight members of the department with the chairman being the departmental personnel officer.⁴⁰ This board assists the chief of police in hearing and deciding complaints against members of the department. The trial board sits in a body to hear the complaint and the answer of the defendant, and prepares a report to the police chief containing its recommendations. A trial board with similar duties has been organized in the fire department of the same city. A board of this character, although possessing no final authority, may be used with considerable benefit so far as departmental morale is concerned, since it permits a direct contact between the subordinate and the superior officers and places a portion of the responsibility for disciplinary action on the shoulders of the rank and file.

A review of the conditions surrounding removal from the public service in Texas cities compels the statement that tenure is fairly satisfactory in the case of those employees under the jurisdiction of a formal personnel agency, while in the remaining cities the procedure varies from an almost uninterrupted tenure to the opposite extreme of a pure spoils system with its arbitrary separations. Although some advance has been made in the matter of tenure, few efforts have been made to devise a workable plan of separating incompetent and inefficient persons from the service. The removal procedure in Texas cities employing a civil service commission seems to be fairly satisfactory and, from the few removals which have been made, little evidence is found to substantiate the belief that the use of trial boards results actually in the trial of the department head. Nothing like a satisfactory removal procedure is found save in those cities possessing a formal merit system, and even here the results are not too encouraging. It becomes necessary once again to note the need for a personnel agency to cope with problems of this nature.

⁴⁰*Rules and Regulations, Police Department, City of Dallas, Rule 269.*

CHAPTER IX

IN-SERVICE PROBLEMS: POLITICAL ACTIVITIES, ORGANIZATIONS, AND WELFARE

IV. POLITICAL ACTIVITIES

The entrance of an individual into the public service places him in an unusual position. If the jurisdiction operates under the sway of the spoils system, his political activities will be intensified, since his ability to muster votes for the group in power will determine the length of his tenure. If under the merit system the employee, if there is a conscientious administration, must avoid the political maneuverings which are found in almost every municipality. Thus the municipal civil servant, regardless of the character of civil service administration, occupies a position which at best is difficult, and one which is not ordinarily understood by the general public.

The familiar devices employed by the spoilsmen are not foreign to Texas cities although their use, happily, is not of a flagrant character. One abuse of the spoils system is the practice of levying assessments upon employees for the purpose of financing party campaigns. A second requirement of the spoilsmen is that municipal employees engage in political activities, rendering service which ranges from securing names on nomination papers to attending political conventions as delegates and making campaign speeches.¹ In recent years stringent state and local laws have been passed to prevent these activities.

¹For discussions of political activities as they relate to municipal employment, see Sterling D. Spero, "Employer and Employee in the Public Service," in *Problems of the American Public Service* (New York, 1935), pp. 217-230; William C. Beyer, "Municipal Civil Service in the United States," *ibid.*, pp. 141-149; and H. Eliot Kaplan, "Political Influence, Its Operation and Effects," in *Proceedings of the Sixth Eastern States Regional Conference of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 1935*, pp. 34-40.

A review of the limitations against political activities in Texas cities reveals that only eight of the twenty-three cities between 10,000 and 100,000 population have prohibitions against participation in partisan politics by employees. Austin and Sweetwater provide this prohibition through executive orders while in Waco and Marshall it is found in the charter. Although fifteen of the cities between 10,000 and 100,000 population have no specific prohibition against political activities, in two of these the employees actually abstain from such participation, while in another the practice is discouraged by the administration. On the other hand, in several cities the employees take an active part in the city campaign.

In all the five cities of 100,000 population and over, provisions are found which forbid the participation in politics of all employees or of those under the jurisdiction of the civil service commission. In charter provisions which are almost identically worded, Dallas, San Antonio, Fort Worth, and Waco prohibit all employees from soliciting or receiving any assessment or contribution for any political party or any political purpose. There is also the requirement that "no person holding a position in the Classified Service shall take part in political management or affairs, or in political campaigns, further than to cast his vote or express privately his opinion."² The Civil Service Commission of El Paso provides for dismissal or suspension of any employee who seeks or accepts an office in a political club or organization, serves as a member of a committee of a political club or circulates a petition for a party primary or election, acts as a party worker at the polls, solicits or receives money from any employee for political purposes, or uses or promises to use any influence

²*Charter of the City of Dallas* (1931), Sec. 128; *The Charter of the City of Fort Worth* (1928), Chap. XXIV, Sec. 15; *Charter of the City of San Antonio* (1931), Sec. 152; *Rules and Regulations of the Waco Civil Service Board*, pp. 3-4.

to secure an appointment in the classified service as a reward for partisan service.³ Houston provides for the removal or discharge of any employee receiving, soliciting, or paying a political assessment, or being "unduly active in municipal, precinct, county, or State politics."⁴ The latter inhibition is practically impossible of enforcement since it would be very difficult to interpret the words "unduly active."

The city hall is still a center of local politics in many Texas municipalities and the major offices are employed along with the subordinate positions to provide the party in power with the sinews of war in the form of campaign contributions. It is apparent that this prostitution of the municipal civil service is costly to the local taxpayers; the positions become an end in themselves rather than a means to the realization of a more capable public service. Restrictive regulations against such practices, however, must be supported by a public demand for their eradication before much in the way of improvement can be effected.

V. ORGANIZATIONS

Until recent years the public units of the United States have not been faced with the problem of employees' organizations which has confronted European governments for some decades. Of late, however, the increasing tendency of civil servants to organize for various purposes has given rise to certain accompanying problems which demand consideration. While the labor problems of a governmental

³*Code of Rules and Regulations of the El Paso Civil Service Commission*, Sec. 50. These provisions are based upon sections 12 and 13 of the charter amendment which established the Commission. The amendment permits an employee to maintain membership in a political organization and to attend the meetings. Sections 12 and 13 of the charter amendment follow almost completely sections XXI and XXII of the National Civil Service Reform League's *Draft of a City Civil Service Law* (New York, 1931).

⁴*Civil Service Rules and Regulations, City of Houston*, Rule VII, Sec. 5, paragraph (t).

unit are not dissimilar to those of private business, the paramount position of the state makes it impossible to accord to its employees full privileges to lobby, bargain collectively, or strike. It is claimed that government employees, by virtue of the status of their employer (the public), owe undivided loyalty and allegiance to the state. This is the general viewpoint held by most governmental officials and supported by public opinion, and hence most national organizations of public employees have taken a similar stand against even the mildest form of aggressive tactics, since they fear that such action would bring their organization into disrepute. In recent years, employees' organizations have developed particularly in the federal services and in the teaching profession, although organizations of municipal employees are found in the larger cities. Generally speaking, however, municipal employees' organizations are of a transitory character and have been looked upon unfavorably by the public and city officials.⁵

Ordinarily the activities of employee organizations are limited to efforts to secure shorter hours, higher wages, better working conditions, and protection from arbitrary disciplinary action. Additional objectives of some municipal employee organizations are the provision of a benefit fund, credit unions, recreation, social contacts, and a medium for expressing the opinions of the employees. When properly directed and understood, employees' organizations not only are legitimate as a method of protecting the employees' interests, but can be made to serve the ends of an improved administration by raising the standards of employment and preventing abuses of the merit system. The privilege of lobbying to secure improved working conditions is seldom denied to employees' organizations, although in some instances cities have placed a ban on this activity. Thus in Houston dismissal may be ordered for

⁵Leonard D. White, *Trends in Public Administration* (New York, 1933), pp. 301-308. The problems arising in public employment are treated at length in Sterling D. Spero, *op. cit.*, pp. 171-239.

the solicitation of the vote of a councilman for or against any ordinance, budgetary measure, or appropriation, provided this attempt is made at any other place than at a council or council committee meeting.⁶

The privilege granted to municipal employees to organize does not carry with it the right to utilize the strike to effect their demands. Although this problem has not pressed for solution in Texas, two cases have arisen which are indicative of the judicial viewpoint. In 1919 the regulations of the Dallas fire department required that members secure the approval of the chief before joining any organization. During that year, a local union composed of firemen was organized and affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. The firemen refused to resign and were discharged by the city commission. Relying on the Texas statute guaranteeing the general right of laborers to form unions, the firemen instituted suit asking for reinstatement. The appellate court denied their request and held the discharge to be justified on the grounds that their allegiance to the union might clash with the general interests of the city, and that the establishment of unions among public employees was not contemplated by the general statute granting the right to form unions.⁷ In the same year another decision by an appellate court, which involved a firemen's union in San Antonio, indicated a similar view.⁸ Although the decisions in these instances were influenced directly by the Boston police strike in the preceding year, it is evident that unionism among Texas municipal employees cannot go far without the approval or acquiescence of the city council.

Organizations of Texas municipal employees are both state-wide and local in character. One of the most influential organizations of the former type is the State Firemen's

⁶*Civil Service Rules and Regulations, City of Houston*, Rule VII, Sec. 5, paragraph (k).

⁷*McNatt v. Lawther*, 223 S.W. 503 (1920).

⁸*San Antonio Fire Fighters' Local Union No. 84 v. Bell*, 223 S.W. 506 (1920).

and Fire Marshals' Association of Texas, which has been in existence for some sixty years. Formed for the purpose of improving fire fighting practices, it has been responsible for the recent campaign to improve firemen through training, and in addition has been active in supporting legislation for a state-wide system of pensions for firemen.⁹ Membership in this association is open to fire companies and individuals representing fire companies and district firemen's organizations. In addition, all fire chiefs and fire marshals are eligible for membership.¹⁰ Possessing less influence than the firemen's association is the City Marshals and Chiefs of Police Union of Texas, which is composed of the heads of various public and private police agencies in the State.¹¹ Other state-wide organizations are the Texas City Managers' Association, Texas City Attorneys' Association, Texas Chapter of the Municipal Finance Officers' Association, and Texas Association of Police Communication Officers. These organizations as yet have developed no continuous personnel programs and consequently have failed to realize the service they might render in the improvement of the municipal personnel.¹²

Local organizations of municipal employees ordinarily are confined to the city alone, although one association, the

⁹See Chapter X.

¹⁰The constitution and by-laws of the State Firemen's and Fire Marshals' Association may be found in the *Proceedings of the Fifty-ninth Annual Convention of the State Firemen's and Fire Marshals' Association of Texas, 1935*, pp. 89-96.

¹¹*Proceedings of the Thirty-fifth Annual Convention of the City Marshals and Chiefs of Police Union of Texas, 1933*, pp. 56-61.

¹²The proper rôle of organizations of this type remains to be determined. In a recent study of the Massachusetts civil service it was stated that "unless a professional spirit is developed there may be as much 'politics' inside of civil service laws as outside of them. By 'politics inside civil service' I do not mean the evasion of the law, but the efforts of civil service groups to secure the enactment of laws on purely selfish grounds." George C. S. Benson, *The Administration of the Civil Service in Massachusetts* (Cambridge, Mass., 1935), p. xii. See also pp. 15-19.

City-County Employees' Union of Houston, includes members from two political jurisdictions. The Union was founded in 1919 and is affiliated with the American Federation of Labor and the Texas State Federation of Labor. At present it is composed of city employees working in the street and bridge, park, water, and garbage departments, and county employees engaged on ferries and county roads. The total membership approximates 500, and with the exception of one county precinct and the city water department, over 90 per cent of the eligible employees have joined. The purposes of this organization are "to secure an adequate wage for work performed, to have the right kind of working conditions, to provide sick benefits . . . and death benefits."¹³ In addition, the Union has sponsored legislation designed to secure pensions for city employees, a merit system for Harris county employees, and an extension of the merit system to city laborers.

The national firemen's organization, the International Association of Fire Fighters, which is affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, has formed two local unions in Port Arthur and El Paso. After failing previously, a second attempt to organize a local fire fighters' union in Houston in 1935 was also unsuccessful due to an unfavorable attitude on the part of the city administration. These locals confer no financial benefits, their main purposes being to improve the fire fighting service, to create a coöperative spirit among firemen, and to effect an improvement of working conditions. The earlier attempts in Texas to form employees' unions along the lines employed by organized labor, together with the judicial decisions previously noted, have operated as a deterrent to the formation of other unions, since there appears to be a general feeling at the present time against this type of organization.

The most common type of local organization is the welfare and benefit association found in several of the fire and police departments. Differing from the organizations

¹³From a letter to the Bureau of Municipal Research from Mr. J. M. Stone, financial secretary of the Union, November 5, 1935.

previously noted, these associations give little attention to campaigns for improved working conditions, but rather are intended to provide sickness, disability, retirement, and death benefits. Organized by the employees, they have no direct relation with the city administration. Their funds come mainly from membership dues, although some income is derived from donations, entertainments, and interest on loans and securities.

As shown in Table XXII, the organizations vary as to the benefits conferred and employees included. The Dallas Firemen's Mutual Insurance Plan, for example, is a very informal organization and exists for the single purpose of providing death benefits. The San Antonio Firemen's Relief Fund, on the other hand, possesses an elaborate organization which provides its members with death, disability, and sickness benefits. The services provided by the remaining organizations vary between the limits set by these two extremes. Only one association, the San Antonio Firemen's Relief Fund, is based on compulsory membership, although three of the other organizations report a membership of 100 per cent and the remainder have enrolled high percentages of those eligible. Of a total of eleven organizations, nine pay death benefits and seven pay sickness benefits. The San Antonio Firemen's Relief Fund pays some pensions and the firemen's organizations in El Paso and Fort Worth grant a flat sum of \$500 on retirement. These associations perform a valuable service in making available through coöperative activity benefits incapable of being provided by individual endeavor.

Another type of employee organization which has grown rapidly in the United States in recent years is the credit union. By the end of 1935, credit unions to the approximate number of 750 had been formed in various governmental jurisdictions, of which 145 were in municipalities.¹⁴

¹⁴G. Lyle Belsley, "Personnel Administration," in *The Municipal Year Book, 1936*, p. 16.

TABLE XXII
FIREMEN'S AND POLICEMEN'S WELFARE ASSOCIATIONS IN TEXAS CITIES, 1935

City	Name	Annual Contribution Per Member	Death Benefits	Disability Benefits	Sickness Benefits
Houston.....	Police Burial Fund Association	\$6	\$1,000	-----	-----
Houston.....	Firemen's Benevolent Association (chartered by State)	\$12	\$1,500	\$1,500	-----
Houston.....	City-County Employees' Union	\$15	\$ 200	-----	\$15 per week
Dallas.....	Firemen's Mutual Insurance Plan	\$3 whenever death occurs	\$1,000	-----	-----
San Antonio.....	Policemen's Relief Association	\$14	\$ 350	-----	\$70 is annual maximum; \$50, hospitalization maximum; service of phy- sician
San Antonio.....	Firemen's Relief Fund	\$10	\$ 300	Pays pensions	\$70 is annual maximum; \$100, hospitali- zation maxi- mum; nurse, \$65 maximum May give sick- ness benefits
Fort Worth.....	Police Benevolent Association	\$12	\$1,000	-----	\$2 per day for 6 months; doc- tor, \$100 maxi- mum; hospital- ization for 21 days
Fort Worth.....	Firemen's Relief Association	\$21	\$1,000	-----	\$25 per week for 12 weeks, 30 days hospi- talization
El Paso.....	Police Relief Fund Association	\$6	-----	-----	-----
El Paso.....	Fire Department Retirement Club	\$12	\$ 500	\$ 500	-----
Wichita Falls.....	Policemen's Relief Association	\$12	-----	-----	Pay hospital bills; no limit

The credit union is a coöperative enterprise formed for the purpose of providing a convenient method whereby employees may open small savings accounts and borrow small sums at low interest rates.¹⁵ Although only two Texas cities have organized credit unions, several of the welfare organizations offer this benefit to their members. The San Antonio Policemen's Relief Fund lends small sums to its members at low interest rates, which serves the employee with easy credit and provides a source of income for the fund. The El Paso Firemen's Retirement Club permits its members to borrow sums up to \$200, provided two co-signers are obtained, or to borrow up to the amount of their contributions without any guarantors. The El Paso Police Relief Fund Association likewise makes small loans to its members. The City-County Employees' Union of Houston lends money to its members in the event of illness in the family.

The Fort Worth Credit Union is chartered under State law and serves as a coöperative bank with membership open to all city employees who pay an entrance fee of twenty-five cents and purchase one share of stock for \$5. About 400 employees, or half of the city civil service, were members in 1935 and the membership was increasing, particularly among the lower salaried groups.¹⁶ Members are allowed to borrow amounts up to the total of their deposits (which take the form of shares) without co-signers, or they may borrow an amount equal to one month's salary at 5 per cent interest payable in one year with two co-signers. In 1935 the outstanding loans amounted to approximately \$15,000 for 285 borrowers. A cash reserve of \$500 is maintained and payments on loans are deducted by the city auditor from the pay rolls. In no instance may withdrawals exceed \$100 unless a notice of thirty days is given.

¹⁵See C. R. Orchard, *Credit Unions for Government Employees* (Civil Service Assembly, 1936).

¹⁶For an interesting account of the actual benefits derived by one member from the Fort Worth Credit Union, see *ibid.*, pp. 1-2.

The Dallas Credit Union was incorporated in 1931 under State law and has the same legal status as a savings bank. Any municipal employee may participate in its benefits by starting a savings account, and the membership is fairly representative of the entire personnel. In 1935 there were about 550 active accounts forming a total capital of \$30,000. The organization functions on a non-profit basis and pays no interest, though dividends accumulating from interest on loans are paid periodically to the members. The maximum loan ordinarily is for one month's salary, and about two-thirds of those maintaining accounts have borrowed sums aggregating over \$100,000. The Credit Union investigates the complaints of merchants as to the non-payment of bills by employees, and if deemed proper it takes up the bills and consolidates the obligations into one note. In addition to the savings feature, the Credit Union also serves as a purchasing agency for the buying of equipment used by firemen and policemen.

The services rendered to municipal employees in Texas by the several kinds of organizations indicate a need for associations of this charter, and it is likely that their number will continue to increase, particularly in the instance of credit unions. The increase in the number of employees' organizations raises several problems directly related to personnel administration, since the implications of this movement are far-reaching. If properly directed and controlled, they can serve materially to improve the civil service. If not given close and sympathetic attention by city officials, however, they are likely to be disturbing factors and bring down the public wrath upon themselves through ill-advised attempts to effect their proposals. The use of employees' organizations in the handling of discipline and other in-service problems deserves careful study, for if they are accorded a proper rôle and a real responsibility they may play a significant part in administration. The possible contributions which they may render in this connection are as important in many respects as the more

traditional objectives of obtaining benefits and improved working conditions for their members.¹⁷

VI. WELFARE

In the routine of internal personnel administration, certain matters of a miscellaneous nature arise which relate directly to the welfare of the employee. These problems concern hours of work, vacations, sick leaves, and recreation. Although it will not be possible to give extended consideration to these matters, their direct effect on the morale of the civil service makes it imperative that their importance in the administration of the personnel program be clearly understood.

The general practice in the larger cities of this State is to require an eight-hour working day with the exception of Saturday, which is limited ordinarily to four hours. The forty-four-hour week does not apply to the utilities and safety services, which must be maintained continuously and therefore require different schedules. The State law specifies eight hours as a working day for all laborers, mechanics, and workmen employed on public works in the cities and counties,¹⁸ and for patrolmen in cities of over 50,000 population.¹⁹

The benefits to be derived from the granting of vacations with pay are obvious, since the change results in a

¹⁷An account of the activities of employee organizations in the federal service may be found in Luther C. Steward, "The Contribution of Employees' Organizations and Committees to Better Public Service," in *Summary of the Proceedings of the Sixth Eastern States Regional Conference of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 1935*, pp. 65-69.

Two national organizations composed of employees of state and local governments have recently been formed. These are the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees and the National Association of Civil Service Employee Organizations. See the *Civil Service Assembly News Letter*, Vol. I (December, 1935), p. 7, and *ibid.*, Vol. II (July, 1936), p. 4.

¹⁸*Vernon's Annotated Revised Civil Statutes of the State of Texas* (1936), Art. 5165. Cited hereafter as *Revised Civil Statutes*.

¹⁹*Ibid.*, Art. 5167.

physically and mentally improved worker. It is provided by law that policemen and firemen in cities of over 25,000 population cannot be employed more than six days a week except in emergencies. In cities of over 30,000 population policemen and firemen employed for a year or more must be allowed a fifteen-day vacation each year. Although a definite penalty in the form of a fine is provided for the failure of municipal officials to observe this law, few cities at present are following its requirements.²⁰

Data relating to vacations were received from forty-three cities, of which thirty-one are above and twelve below 10,000 population. The varying practices in these cities make difficult any summary or generalization, although some trends may be noted. Five cities under 25,000 population grant no vacations, and the general practice in cities under 10,000 is to permit vacations only at infrequent intervals. Retrenchment efforts during the depression resulted in shorter vacations, vacations with reduced pay or no pay, and the suspension of vacations. The general length of vacations is from ten to fourteen days, although a few run for only one week. Vacation practices may vary even within the city: in some instances employees in one or two departments are granted vacations while others receive none. Fort Worth granted two weeks' vacation without pay from 1932 to 1934 and gave half pay in 1935, although during the same period the employees of the (independently administered) park and recreation departments were given paid vacations. Others, as for example Austin, grant a two-weeks vacation to employees who work daily but deny this privilege to office workers, who receive Sundays and Saturday afternoons off. Day laborers ordinarily receive no paid vacations, although exceptions are found in the instances of Beaumont, which permits pay for five holidays, and Highland Park, which allows a week's paid vacation.

²⁰*General and Special Laws, Forty-fourth Legislature, Regular Session (1935)*, Vol. I, Chap. 139, pp. 377-378.

Sherman grants a ten-day vacation to those serving one year and fifteen days to those employed for two years or more. Lubbock varies the length of vacations by granting a leave of ten days to salaried employees working outdoors and two weeks to department heads and office workers. Dallas follows the policy of granting six-day vacations to those who have been in the service for six months and an additional day for each month in service, with a maximum vacation of twelve working days per year. Firemen are granted fifteen days' and policemen seven days' vacation, with the latter receiving an additional two days during each month.²¹ Rules as to the length and terms of vacation should be formulated and made a part of the personnel regulations of the city.

Another instance in which the city should prescribe a definite policy relates to sick leaves. On the one hand the city must protect itself from the expense resulting from the unjustifiable absence of the employee, and on the other the employee must not be required to remain on duty under conditions which are injurious to his health. The welfare of the employee and the additional matter of morale demand that sick leaves carry pay, although the determination of the length of absence with pay should be left to the council. It has been suggested that sick leave be cumulative in order to prevent a misuse of this privilege and to encourage the employee to save his accumulated time against a possible future period of extended illness. Records of sick leaves should be maintained as a part of the personnel files.

A survey of the sick-leave policies in thirty-five cities, all but seven of which are of 10,000 population and over, shows that nineteen, or 55 per cent, grant sick leaves with pay for a "reasonable time" or for an indefinite number of days. In some instances a reasonable time is interpreted to mean three months or even more. Austin, Big Spring,

²¹*Personnel Regulations, City of Dallas, Texas, Rule 31.*

and San Angelo allow thirty days' sick leave with pay; Fort Worth, twenty-one days; and Waco, Corpus Christi, and Sherman, fifteen days. In four other cities the period is ten days or less. Houston varies the compensation by granting two weeks at full pay and two weeks at half pay. The Dallas policy is to grant a paid sick leave for twelve days to all salaried employees save those of the fire and police departments, upon the condition that they have undergone a physical examination by the health department within the twelve months' period preceding the illness.²² Dallas firemen and policemen are granted thirty days' paid sick leave. The general practice is not to permit pay for sick leave in the instance of day laborers, although Denison and Beaumont are two exceptions.

Enforced leave occasioned by injuries received in line of duty ordinarily carries a continuation of the salary in addition to the payment of medical and hospital fees. A frequent policy in Texas is for the city to carry accident insurance policies, although no provision is made for the protection of municipal employees through a State workmen's compensation law.²³ This lack of complete protection, as will be recalled, is taken care of in part by the sickness benefits provided by various associations of firemen and policemen. In addition to their association, Fort Worth policemen have effected an arrangement with a local hospital whereby they receive medical services at a cost of \$1 a month each. This is the only instance of a group medical agreement discovered, although experiments being conducted in other states appear to indicate an expansion of this service.²⁴ Reduction in the time lost through sickness has been effected in Dallas through the use of periodical physical

²²*Ibid.*, Rule 33.

²³In 1936 a constitutional amendment was adopted granting to the legislature power to provide workmen's compensation insurance for State employees only. *The Constitution of the State of Texas*, Art. III, Sec. 59.

²⁴The operation of a group medical service for public employees in the Los Angeles area is described in H. U. M. Higgins, *The Ross-Loos Clinic* (Civil Service Assembly, 1936).

examinations. The provision that paid sick leave depends upon a physical examination during the preceding twelve months places the responsibility upon the employee.

Closely related to the effective performance of firemen and policemen is physical training, which evidently should be required of those employees engaged in strenuous outdoor activities. Notwithstanding this need, the cities generally have been delinquent in providing facilities for such training, and even where some provision is made, make-shift quarters are used. Firemen receive physical training in the form of calisthenics in addition to their drill tower routine. Less attention is paid to the police departments, where the increasing use of the police radio patrol makes physical training all the more desirable. Dallas employs calisthenics and military drill approximately three months each year, while Fort Worth policemen have baseball teams which provide recreation. With these exceptions, policemen are not required to engage in any program of physical training.

Almost no recognition has been accorded recreation as a possible incentive to increased morale in the municipal civil service. Isolated instances are found in some cities where various social activities and athletic contests have been employed. These have been deficient, however, in that no attempt has been made to organize the program along departmental or occupational lines. A recreation program offers some promise by way of providing a needed social outlet and an opportunity to unite the employees along coöperative lines.²⁵

A general lack of attention to the miscellaneous but very important in-service problems which have been considered here offers added evidence of the shortsightedness which ordinarily characterizes internal personnel administration in the cities of this State. Although no one of these problems in itself is of sufficient importance to justify an ex-

²⁵For an example of a particular type of recreation program which may be sponsored by the city, see "City Employees First Annual Field Day," *Toledo City Journal*, Vol. XXI (August 29, 1936), p. 356.

tensive program, they form collectively an important sector of personnel administration. The need for increased attention becomes evident when it is realized that these problems relate directly to the working conditions of the employee, upon which more than upon any other thing his morale depends. Under no circumstances should there be permitted such vagaries in policy regarding sick leaves and vacations as are found in some Texas cities. No more effective way could be devised to introduce discord and disharmony into the service. Any city employing as many as a dozen civil servants can ill afford not to give considerable attention to these conditions of municipal employment.

CHAPTER X

RETIREMENT

The personnel program of a city has not achieved completeness when it has made provision for a proper system of recruitment, a training program, and a progressive scheme of in-service management. True enough, these factors are fundamental and form the basis of a civil service system. Provision for the separation of employees from the service other than through the removal process, however, is likewise of vital import since it is necessary on occasion to remove civil servants for reasons other than discipline. To complete the system, then, it is necessary that the city establish a retirement policy to take care of those employees who for reasons of age or disability must be removed from active service.

The benefits to be derived from a retirement program are real and serve employer and employee alike. From the point of view of the city it will reduce personnel costs by effecting the separation from the service of superannuated employees who otherwise will often be retained at a full salary. The needs of active employees will be answered through improving their chances of promotion and protecting them against the specters of illness, disability, and old age. Further, such a policy operates to attract and retain persons who, in the absence of security in the public service, might change to private employment because of the increasing social security being offered in that field. An extensive retirement program can be sponsored only by the city since (1) such protection cannot be secured by the employee alone due to the prohibitive cost; (2) the opportunities for obtaining a rate of interest sufficient to build a reserve fund are possible only where large sums are available for investment; and (3) public employees do not possess the same opportunities to save as those in private employment since the latter may secure certain benefits

from their private employer in the nature of profit sharing, special stock sales, etc., which cannot be granted by the government.¹ The desirability of a retirement system as an aid to both the government and the employee is apparent.

Despite these recognized advantages, however, cities continue to retain employees in their service long after they have passed the stage of usefulness, which means in effect that they are supporting a very expensive pension program. Out of a total of 247 Texas cities of 1,000 population and over, only one has a fixed policy as to the age at which employees are required to retire from the service. This city is Dallas, and even there the prescription is indefinite in that firemen and policemen who have served twenty years and are sixty-five years old may be required to retire by the pension board. The natural result of such a general policy has been the retention of many superannuated employees in the municipal service. Although it was not possible to study this problem in detail, a survey of the age ranges in several cities reveals some interesting conditions. In 1935 two members of the Dallas police department and three of the Abilene municipal service were over sixty years of age with one of the latter group being eighty. In the same year, 6 per cent of the firemen and 38 per cent of the policemen in the San Antonio service were over fifty years of age with six of the patrolmen being over seventy. These conditions are by no means restricted to the cities mentioned, and similar instances could be found by an examination of the personnel rolls of the other municipalities. Texas cities actually are supporting very expensive pension programs at the present time.²

¹Rowland Egger, "Why Retirement Systems for City Employees?" *Public Management*, Vol. XVII (March, 1935), pp. 79-80.

²The installation and administration of retirement systems raise many problems which cannot be considered here. Those who wish to investigate the matter in detail will find several publications of value. Despite its age, Lewis Meriam's *Principles Governing the Retirement of Public Employees* (New York, 1918), is still regarded as the best statement of the problem. Other references are Rowland

The legal basis of retirement systems in Texas municipalities rests on State statutes and city charters. The legislature in 1919 by statute authorized the granting of pensions in all cities of over 10,000 population to firemen, policemen, and fire alarm operators. Provisions were included relating to the contributions and benefits to be paid and the composition of the administrative board.³ In 1933, these statutes were amended in such fashion as to limit the State authorization to Houston, Dallas, Fort Worth, and El Paso. Further amendments were added in 1935 which apply to these four cities.

Cities operating under home rule charters may provide pensions through charter amendments. The San Antonio pension system, inaugurated in 1919 under State law, is now based upon the charter,⁴ and Waco has a similar provision.⁵ Houston has supplemented the State law by a charter amendment providing for retirement benefits.⁶ Prior to the passage of the State pension law, Dallas established a pension fund by charter amendment in 1916.⁷ Proceeding under the power granted in its charter,⁸ Galveston inaugurated a pension system in 1921, but due to the exhaustion of funds the plan was abandoned in 1928.

Egger, *The Retirement of Public Employees in Virginia* (New York, 1934); Report of the Pension Committee of the National Municipal League, "Pensions in Public Employment," *National Municipal Review*, Vol. XI (April, 1922), pp. 97-124; John F. Willmott, *Municipal Pensions, How to Establish and Operate Them* (Municipal Finance Officers' Association, 1935); "Pension Plan in a Small City," *Public Management*, Vol. XVIII (August, 1936), pp. 243-244; and William E. Mosher and J. Donald Kingsley, *Public Personnel Administration* (New York, 1936), pp. 444-467.

³Revised Civil Statutes, Arts. 6229-6243.

⁴Charter of the City of San Antonio (1931), Sec. 19a.

⁵Charter of the City of Waco (1930), Arts. 180-180a.

⁶Charter of the City of Houston (1927), Art. II, Sec. 20.

⁷Charter of the City of Dallas (1931), Sec. 76.

⁸Charter of the City of Galveston (1927), Sec. 34ii.

Marshall and Port Arthur are empowered to provide pensions for firemen and policemen,⁹ though they have not as yet exercised their power.

The attempt of the State legislature to provide a retirement plan for certain cities has had unhappy consequences in that the plan has been actuarially unsound. Despite this, however, the cities have been unable to make any changes. It would seem that State authorization, if given at all to home rule cities, ought to be limited to broad requirements with certain safeguards, leaving to the cities the power of making such changes and adaptations as are needed to fit local demands. General law cities, on the other hand, must obtain legislative sanction prior to the exercise of this power, which so far has not been granted.

There is a vital rôle, however, which the State should play in pension management, as is demonstrated in the case of New York, where municipal employees have been permitted to participate in the New York State Employees' Retirement System since 1922. A recent and extensive survey of municipal pension systems in New York, sponsored by the New York State Conference of Mayors and the state pension agency, revealed that none of the local funds was on a sound actuarial basis.¹⁰ This report

⁹*Charter of the City of Marshall* (1927), Sec. 180, and *Charter of the City of Port Arthur* (1932), Chap. XI, Sec. 7 and Chap. XII, Sec. 5.

¹⁰Albert H. Hall, *A Summary of Actuarial Surveys of Seventy Local Police and Fire Pension Funds in New York State* (New York State Conference of Mayors, 1935). A state-wide pension plan for Texas firemen was envisaged in a bill passed in 1935 which was vetoed by the governor. A firemen's relief and pension fund was to be established in all cities possessing fire equipment of a value of over \$1,000. Superannuation, disability, and death benefits were provided. The administration of the fund was to be subject to a local board of trustees operating under the general supervision of a State firemen's pension commissioner. The source of revenue was a gross receipts tax on insurance companies to be collected by the State and distributed to the local units with additional revenues being obtained from employees' contributions where the local unit so decided. "Firemen's

recommended the entry of the employees of the smaller municipalities into the state pension system. The absence of a state retirement system in Texas prevents any such practice here, although it constitutes, particularly for the smaller cities, a feasible method of providing retirement benefits.

Pensions are paid at the present time by Dallas, San Antonio, El Paso, Fort Worth, and Waco. In all instances save Fort Worth, the retirement benefits are granted only to members of police and fire departments.¹¹ Fort Worth really does not have a pension system since it grants benefits only to a few disabled employees and to dependents of some former employees. For a five-year period, 1929–1933, Fort Worth provided pensions for its firemen and policemen, but abandoned the practice because of the cumulative evidence that the plan was financially unsound and would eventually become too expensive to maintain.¹²

Despite State authorization and the charter amendment relating to pensions, Houston so far has not established a retirement system. By statute, that city was empowered in 1933 to grant pensions to all its employees, and a charter amendment of the same year provided that the city council should install a pension system for firemen and policemen and such other employees as the city council and/or the

Relief and Pension Fund Bill," *Texas Municipalities*, Vol. XXII (March, 1935), pp. 74–75.

¹¹References to firemen throughout this chapter also include fire alarm operators.

¹²The abandoned Fort Worth pension plan provided superannuation, disability, and death benefits. The ordinance establishing the system was defective in that no contributions were required from the beneficiaries, and there was no binding contract for its continuation. The lack of any scientific foundation is shown by the estimate that the expenditures for pensions would have increased from \$17,520 in 1933 to \$144,850 in 1960. All benefits which had been granted were continued but no new obligations were incurred. An exhaustive analysis of the Fort Worth system prior to its abolition may be found in L. W. Hoelscher, *Pensions, Police and Fire Departments, Fort Worth, Texas* (1933).

legislature might authorize.¹³ Again in 1935 the city received legislative permission to establish a pension system for all employees. The plan must receive popular approval, which so far has not been sought. Such comments as are contained herein on the Houston system refer only to the statutory prescriptions, and not to an established and operating system.¹⁴

Pension systems generally are divided into three types, namely actuarial, cash disbursement, and disguised cash disbursement. The actuarial reserve plan, which is generally recommended for adoption, has been described as follows:

Under the actuarial reserve plan a fund is established, and at regular intervals, generally on pay days, is turned over to the fund a sum which broadly speaking will be sufficient with the compound interest it will earn to pay for all the benefits which will ever fall due as the result of the services rendered during the period covered by the payment. All the money coming in on account of the retirement system is invested at interest and all benefits are paid from this fund.¹⁵

The cash disbursement plan provides for payment of all benefits out of current revenues or contributions as they fall due. Under the disguised cash disbursement plan the practice is to establish a reserve fund in the early years of the plan by requiring contributions somewhat in excess of the current needs. For a few years the fund appears to be solvent, but as the number of pensions increases the reserves are depleted and finally the city must increase its contribution to a point where the system borders on the cash disbursement plan. Due to the general acceptance of the actuarial reserve plan, it will be adopted here as the desirable type of pension system.¹⁶

¹³*Charter of the City of Houston*, Art. II, Sec. 20.

¹⁴The latest State legislation regarding Houston may be found in *Revised Civil Statutes*, Arts. 6229-6243.

¹⁵Lewis Meriam, *op. cit.*, p. 325.

¹⁶Detailed discussions of the various types of pension systems may be found in Lewis Meriam, *op. cit.*, pp. 325-337, and Rowland Egger, *The Retirement of Public Employees in Virginia*, pp. 116-119.

As to the method of contribution, pension systems may be non-contributory, joint-contributory, or wholly contributory. Under the non-contributory plan the employee makes no direct payment to the retirement fund; the city bears the entire cost. The second plan calls for direct contributions by the employees and the government though not necessarily on an equal basis. The third method provides for complete financial support of the system by the employees. While examples of all three types are found operating in cities throughout the country,¹⁷ there is general agreement that the joint-contributory method is the most practical and over a period of years will be more satisfactory than either of the others.¹⁸ The joint-contributory arrangement is held to be advantageous in that it provides an equitable apportionment of the expenditures between the employees and employer on the basis of the benefits derived by each. It tends to check extravagant demands by the employees and encourages employee participation. The last named advantage is particularly important since in many instances little or no recognition is accorded the employee on the pension board.

Under the present plan of pension administration in Texas cities the joint-contributory method is the prevailing practice. Prior to 1935, the employees' contributions in Dallas and El Paso amounted to 1 per cent of the monthly salary. In that year, however, a statutory change permitted the employees in El Paso to contribute from 1 to 3 per cent of their monthly salary, and the Dallas employees to contribute from 1 to 3 per cent of the base pay of a private, which made the payment the same for all firemen

¹⁷A survey of the pension systems operating in 228 cities of over 30,000 population in the United States in 1934 showed that the joint-contributory plan was used by 65 per cent, the non-contributory by 21 per cent, and the wholly contributory by 5 per cent, while 2 per cent were supported solely by state aid. The methods used in the remaining 7 per cent varied. *The Municipal Year Book, 1935*, p. 211.

¹⁸Report of the Pension Committee of the National Municipal League, *op. cit.*, p. 104.

and policemen irrespective of rank. The exact percentage of the employees' contribution is determined by the local pension boards of Dallas and El Paso. In San Antonio, the worker's contribution is 2 per cent of his monthly salary and the proposed system in Houston would deduct 1 per cent of the monthly salary as the employee's portion of the cost. The cash disbursement plan is used in Fort Worth and Waco, which pay all their pensions from current taxes.

Wide variations are discovered in the amounts appropriated by the city. Dallas made annual appropriations, amounting to 1 per cent of the pay rolls of the fire and police departments, from the inauguration of the pension plan in 1916 to 1929. In that year the appropriation was insufficient to meet the requirements and increases were made which amounted to 10 per cent by 1935.¹⁹ San Antonio earmarks for pension payments a definite portion of the property tax which amounted to 1 cent (on each \$100 of assessed valuation) in 1934 and 2 cents in 1936. El Paso followed the practice of contributing a monthly sum of \$2.50 per member up to 1933, after which 3 cents out of every dollar paid in current taxes to the general fund was transferred to the pension fund. In 1935, the El Paso charter was amended to provide for city payments to the pension fund not to exceed the receipts from a 5-cent tax levy, which will permit the city to increase its contributions.

The conditions of retirement and the benefits paid vary from city to city throughout the country. Ordinarily, disability occasioned in line of duty or by other means is provided for, and death benefits are paid to dependents. Old age benefits are found in one form or another in most of the larger cities.²⁰ In most instances, the city permits the

¹⁹This information was obtained from a letter from Mr. H. P. Kucera, City Attorney of Dallas, to the Bureau of Municipal Research, February 25, 1936.

²⁰In 228 cities of over 30,000 population in the United States in 1934, old age benefits were provided by 97 per cent, death in line of

employee to withdraw his contributions upon separation from the service, for the reasons that it permits the elimination of incompetents and facilitates the separation of maladjusted employees from the service. Retirement for superannuation may be made on the basis of either age or years of service. Retirement on the basis of age has come to be the accepted practice due to the possibilities for abuse under the latter plan, examples of which are not lacking in Texas cities.²¹ It is best, perhaps, to make retirement optional at sixty years and compulsory five to ten years later. The retirement benefit received by the employee is computed in various ways. A recent recommendation is that the allowance should constitute a percentage of the average salary received while in service with the length of tenure of the employee being considered in arriving at the actual amount.²²

Without exception, membership in the pension systems of Texas cities is optional. New members entering the system have thirty days to file application in El Paso and sixty days in Dallas. While the optional provision is justifiable, perhaps, at the time of the inauguration of the pension system, it is sound practice to make membership compulsory for new entrants into the service thereafter so that the city may not be called upon in later years to provide for the support of non-participants through extraordinary grants.

The State pension statute in Texas provides for superannuation, total disability, and death benefits. The law applying to Dallas sets the time of retirement after twenty

duty by 82 per cent, ordinary death by 53 per cent, disability in line of duty by 89 per cent, and ordinary disability by 58 per cent. *The Municipal Year Book, 1935*, p. 211.

²¹In one instance an individual retired from the city's service after contributing \$40.88 to the pension fund. Up to February, 1934, he had received \$15,750 from the pension fund, despite the fact that he occupied a position of some importance in a neighboring city. *The Dallas Morning News*, February 11, 1934.

²²Rowland Egger, "Sound Pension Practice for Cities," *Public Management*, Vol. XVII (April, 1935), p. 102.

years of service which is optional for employees between fifty and sixty-five, but may be made compulsory for those over sixty-five by the board of trustees of the pension fund.²³ The retirement benefit is now one-half of the base pay of a private plus one-half of the salary increments granted for length of service. San Antonio firemen and policemen must serve twenty years and are retired only if physically unable to perform their duties. One who has served twenty-five years and attained an age of fifty in El Paso may retire when he desires, and the benefit amounts to one-half the salary paid immediately prior to retirement. The Waco practice is to require a minimum of twenty-five years of continuous service prior to retirement; the benefit is one-half of the salary received at the date of retirement.

Benefits for disability incurred in line of duty are granted to employees in Dallas, El Paso, and Waco in the same amounts as those paid for superannuation retirement. Death benefits likewise are paid in these three cities. In Dallas, upon the death of a pensioner either before or after retirement, the widow receives one-fourth of the monthly salary prior to death and all children under sixteen one-fourth. El Paso grants a death benefit to widows with no children, regardless of the time of death of the employee. This amounts to one-third of the salary received immediately preceding death; if there are dependent children, the widow and children receive one-third of the salary if death occurs before retirement, and one-half if after retirement. The Waco practice is to grant widows and dependent children one-half of the salary of the employee for death in line of duty. Additional death benefits are granted in

²³The State law authorizing cities to pay pensions has been upheld in *Byrd v. City of Dallas*, 6 S.W. (2d) 738 (1928). The holding was that retirement after twenty years of service of persons still able to work does not show maladministration since incapacity does not constitute a prerequisite for retirement. The court also ruled that the twenty years of service need not be subsequent to the enactment of the statute entitling the applicant to a pension.

El Paso to dependent fathers, mothers, brothers, and sisters if death occurs prior to retirement and if the employee is not married. The payments must not exceed one-half of the salary at the time of death. Dallas has restricted its death benefits in the absence of a widow or dependent children to dependent fathers and mothers if death is before retirement. The father and mother each receives one-fourth of the base pay of a private plus one-fourth of the salary increments for length of service.

The plans which have been outlined make no provision for the accrued liability of those who join the pension system at a late age and are therefore eligible for retirement after a few years of service. This defect forms a fatal weakness in the municipal pensions systems in this State, for regardless of their apparent soundness as represented by the impressive reserve funds which have accumulated in one or two instances, it is evident that eventually the retirement systems will break down and revert in large part to the straight cash disbursement method of support.

The administration of the pension systems in Texas cities, like those of other municipalities in the nation, is in the hands of boards of trustees composed in various ways. The Dallas board of trustees consists of seven persons, namely the mayor, two members of the council, and two firemen and two policemen selected by a majority vote of the members of their respective departments. The employee members are appointed for six-year terms. The El Paso pension fund is directed by a board composed of the mayor, two aldermen, two citizens, the fire chief, and the police chief. When it is established, the Houston board of trustees will consist of the mayor, two aldermen, and two citizens. The San Antonio pension board is made up of the mayor, fire and police commissioner, tax commissioner, fire chief, police chief, and two citizens appointed by the mayor. In each of these four systems the city treasurer is the custodian of the pension funds.

The pension boards, with the exception of Dallas, do not grant sufficient representation to employees.²⁴ Employees should have a voice in pension administration in order to stimulate their interest and coöperation in the retirement plan. Where they are excluded or underrepresented the practice too often is to make extravagant demands or unwise proposals because of a lack of knowledge of the financial ability of the city and of the technical ramifications of pension management.

With one or two exceptions the Texas municipal pension systems are in a poor financial condition. The cities employing the straight cash disbursement plan, Waco and Fort Worth, have not been confronted with the problem of a deficit, although their requirements are likely to grow in the future. Waco, the only city below 100,000 with a pension system, has paid benefits to firemen since 1914 and to policemen since 1923 without reducing payments because of a lack of funds. During the fiscal year 1934-1935, a total of \$4,761 was paid to eight pensioners. The Fort Worth practice, which really is not a pension system, provides for annual appropriations for pensions. The council determines the number of recipients from month to month. In May, 1935, for example, a total of thirty-two fire and police pensioners were paid \$367 while in the following month the number was reduced to four persons to whom a total of \$90.78 was paid. At that time, the policy was to grant pensions to dependents rather than superannuated employees. There is no fixed policy as to retirement for superannuation; older employees are simply retained in the service as part-time workers. Physical disability constitutes the only cause for retirement. A total of \$15,000 was allotted for pensions in 1934-1935, while an item for \$12,000 appears in the 1935-1936 budget.

Inaugurated in 1916, the Dallas pension system has increased the employee's contributions from 1 to 2 per cent

²⁴It has been recommended that the board of trustees include the chief executive, a member of the legislative body, and an employee. According to this suggestion, a third of the trustees should be city employees. John F. Willmott, *op. cit.*, p. 2.

of the monthly salary, while the payments made by the city have expanded from 1 per cent of the total pay roll of the fire and police departments to 10 per cent in 1933. Notwithstanding these increased payments, however, a reserve fund amounting in 1924 to \$50,000 has been exhausted. In 1932, the Dallas council provided by ordinance that in the event of an insufficiency of funds the amount available in any fiscal year should be apportioned among the pensioners, and that the amount granted should not exceed the total receipts for that year. Proceeding under this authority pension payments were reduced 40 per cent during the last two months of the fiscal year 1933-1934, and 55 per cent in the last five months of the fiscal year 1934-1935. The reason for this deficit in the pension fund is the lack of actuarial attention in the beginning. An actuarial investigation of the Dallas pension fund in 1933 revealed that according to the scale of payments prevailing at that time the city would have to set aside a fund of \$1,000,000, earning not less than 4 per cent, to provide pensions.²⁵

In May, 1935, Dallas had a total of forty-three policemen and fifty-three firemen receiving pensions in addition to sixty-eight dependent family groups numbering one or more persons each. The present policy in Dallas is to retire an individual after twenty years of service, although this is by no means a fixed rule. Pensioners are required to report the amount of their monthly payments, their occupations, and their income from any type of employment on August 1 of each year.

The San Antonio pension system likewise is in poor financial condition. In 1935, it was eleven months behind in pension payments and an estimate made at that time indicated the situation would soon become worse due to the impending retirement of several employees. In such circumstances, employees eligible to retire are reluctant to do so since they will have to wait almost a year before receiving any benefits. This accounts in good part for the

²⁵J. L. Mims, *An Actuarial Survey of the Dallas Pension Fund* (1933).

presence of a large number of men over fifty years of age in the fire and police departments. In 1934, the pension roll carried a total of eighty-three beneficiaries of which nineteen were former employees and the remainder dependents.

Separate pension funds for the fire and police departments are maintained in El Paso, although they are administered by the same pension board. In 1932, El Paso was paying pensions to six firemen and three policemen; by 1935 there were eleven firemen and twenty policemen on the pension list. The El Paso funds are in the best condition at the present time of those of all Texas cities, and the reserve has been increasing despite the extension of the pension list. This healthy condition, however, in all likelihood is only temporary since the lack of an actuarial basis, plus the tendency to require ever-increasing contributions from the city, will no doubt lead eventually to a situation not unlike that noted in other cities.

The defects of the pension systems in Texas cities grow almost entirely from the lack of an actuarial survey at the time of the creation of the fund. During the early stages of their development these funds appeared to be sound, since the amounts contributed were more than needed and consequently a sizeable reserve fund was formed. The failure to fund the accrued liability of the older employees who had only a few years to serve, however, plus the failure to determine by actuarial study the contributions needed, has resulted in the present bankruptcy of these funds with no immediate hope for their restoration to a sound status. This condition places an undue hardship on the active employees since their past payments have helped to finance pensions on a scale which cannot be continued without a vast increase in the amount of the contributions. The remedy is painful but it must be endured if the pension system is to be restored to a sound basis. Steps should be taken immediately to provide for a survey of each pension fund to determine its exact status, and to reorganize each system in accordance with sound principles. In the instance

of several cities, such a plan can be effected only after a change in the statutes.²⁶

Closely related to pensions, and serving as a substitute for them in the smaller cities, is group insurance, which ordinarily provides the employee with death and disability benefits and in some cases with sickness benefits. The smaller cities which are unable financially to install a pension system may well turn to group insurance as a method of protecting their employees. The premiums may be paid by the city or employee alone or by joint contributions. Group insurance may include members of only one department or may be spread to all employees in the city's service. Features of the group insurance plan which are attractive to the employee are low premiums, waiver of medical examinations, and certainty of benefits, while the city is released from the responsibility of establishing a pension system. It is possible to maintain a pension system and a group insurance plan in the same city, although ordinarily one is found only in the absence of the other.

Some of the more important features of the group insurance plans operative in Texas cities are shown in Table XXIII. Of the eight different cities included, all save one have extended group insurance to the entire city personnel. While only two of these plans are compulsory, the high percentage of members among those eligible to participate indicates the popularity of this form of protection. The method of payment varies: in three instances the city pays the entire premium; in two cities the employees finance the system; and in four, payments are made jointly by the city and the employee. Death benefits are provided in every instance, disability benefits in six cities, and sickness benefits in two. A few other cities in the State maintain group insurance plans which include, however, only a small number of participants. The ease of installation of the group

²⁶For a suggested program looking to the installation of a pension system, see Herman Kehrli, *Portland Pension Problems* (Portland, 1934), pp. 92-94.

TABLE XXIII
GROUP INSURANCE IN TEXAS CITIES, 1935

City	Employees Included	Annual Premium Paid by	Benefits		
			Death	Disability	Sickness
Houston*	All employees†	City	\$ 500‡	\$ 500‡	-----
Fort Worth	Fire	Employee	1,000 or 2,000	1,000 or 2,000	-----
Fort Worth	All departments except fire and police	City and employee	1,000‡	1,000‡	\$10 per week for 26 weeks
Austin	Fire and police	Employee	1,000	-----	-----
San Angelo	All employees	City and employee	1,000‡	1,000‡	\$10 per week for 26 weeks
Abilene*	All employees§	City	500 and 1,000	-----	-----
Lubbock	All employees	City and employee	2,000‡	2,000‡	-----
Sherman	All employees	City and employee	1,000‡	1,000‡	-----
Big Spring	All employees	City	1,000	-----	-----

*Membership is compulsory.

†Employee must have been in the city's service for six months.

‡Only one of these benefits is paid.

§Employee must have been in the city's service for three months.

||\$500 is paid to those over and \$1,000 to those under sixty years of age.

insurance plan, plus the relatively low cost to the city and/or the employee, suggests that its possibilities should be studied closely by the smaller cities.

The necessity for some sort of retirement program for municipal employees is generally admitted, but the unhappy consequences resulting from the operation of the present pension systems in Texas have caused some popular reaction against the entire plan. It is to be regretted that the cities which have endeavored to provide for their firemen and policemen did not base their systems on a scientific foundation. Not until some form of reorganization is effected will the cities be able to make their pension systems solvent, and this will involve careful study and the employment of extensive technical assistance.

Since the inauguration of the federal and state social security programs in all likelihood will result in a renewed interest in similar plans for municipal employees in this State, a word of caution should be given to the cities. A pension plan should be inaugurated only after intensive scientific investigation which will permit the council to realize completely the obligations to be assumed by the city. Such questions as the amount of contributions, the disposition of accrued liability, and the administration of the system all deserve intelligent and intensive study. The city should be warned by the mistakes of the municipalities which have already entered the field. It is probable that death, disability, and old age benefits are financially practicable only in the five cities of 100,000 population and over, since the smaller cities do not possess a sufficient number of employees to spread the risks properly.

There is also the matter of administrative costs, which amount to a prohibitive sum in the smaller municipality. In this instance, group insurance can be employed to afford considerable protection to the employee. The possibilities of superannuation benefits, however, should not be ignored since it is possible that some of the larger cities below

100,000 may find it possible to provide this additional protection. For the smaller municipalities which are unable to provide any benefits, it is possible that a number of cities might unite to form an intermunicipal system. The formation of a retirement fund for State employees awaits the establishment of a State merit system. If and when this is effected, the New York practice suggests that employees of the smaller cities might well participate in the State fund. In the meantime it must be emphasized that all cities, large and small alike, should exercise extreme care in the installation and administration of a retirement system.

CHAPTER XI

PROSPECTS

The presence of some 16,000 municipal employees drawing a total annual compensation approximating \$16,000,000 furnishes ample evidence of the present significance of the Texas municipal civil service and of the need for an intelligent personnel program. Nor is there any indication of an immediate reversal of the present trend of growth. On the contrary, the extent and cost of municipal personnel in all likelihood will continue to expand even in the absence of a spectacular population growth. While the entrance of the city into new fields of endeavor has not been as rapid since 1929 as before, there is no immediate prospect of any contraction of service; and even now cities are assuming new responsibilities of a vital character.

In view of the undoubted importance of the municipal civil service in this State, it may seem strange that it has not been accorded a more intelligent treatment. Only six cities with formal merit systems are found,¹ and although it is recognized that the presence of a civil service commission by no means guarantees a personnel system administered on the basis of merit, it does indicate some interest in the subject. In those cities possessing formal merit systems, the organization of the personnel agency in each instance follows the traditional type exemplified by a civil service commission. The same adherence to traditional personnel practices is found in the activities of the personnel agency. Such matters as classification and salary standardization, recruitment, and retirement have been handled along lines which indicate a modicum of attention to the progressive principles which have been developed in recent years. With one or two exceptions the civil service

¹The two personnel agencies in El Paso are considered as one since they serve only one city.

commissions of this State are doing little in the way of experimentation with an eye to developing new personnel techniques.

Full responsibility for this situation, however, does not attach to the personnel agencies alone. It must be shared by the city councils, which have been niggardly in their appropriations for personnel administration, as shown by the fact that in 1935 a total of only \$16,000 was appropriated for the five personnel agencies in existence at that time.² During the same period, \$16,000,000 was spent for salaries and wages in cities of 1,000 population and over, a large portion of which is accounted for by cities of sufficient size to support at least a part-time personnel director. On the basis of one suggestion that 1 per cent of the pay roll be spent on personnel administration, the personnel expenditure would have been \$160,000, or ten times the sum actually expended. Another estimate that a minimum annual expenditure of \$10,000 is required to support a personnel agency would eliminate all those operating at present in this State. The city councils have been penny wise and pound foolish in failing to realize the importance of personnel administration.

The general adherence to traditional procedure and the failure to accord the necessary financial support to the personnel agency have had a depressing effect on the morale of employees in many cities of this State. The importance of a high morale, which can result only from the development of the proper incentives for effective service, is admitted by all. Yet a survey of the morale of the municipal civil service in Texas leads to the conclusion that only a few cities have realized the significant returns to be received from a proper personnel system.

In the absence of a personnel program, the spoils system continues to flourish in many Texas cities. The evil effects of the spoils system and its depressive influence on the tone of the municipal civil service are admitted generally and require no additional proof. Yet large and small cities

²The Waco Civil Service Board was not organized until April, 1936.

alike are faced with the task of eradicating the spoils system as a step preliminary to the establishment of progressive personnel policies. The time has come for municipal employees to think in terms of work accomplished rather than in terms of the next election. In working toward this end, something more is needed than mere lip service to the principles of the merit system.

Despite the beginnings that have been made in training municipal officials in Texas, the fact remains that there is as yet no realization of the implications which this phase of the personnel program has for an improved civil service. The failure of cities generally to make a place for the college-trained person is indicative of the nearsighted view of municipal employment held by city authorities. As a matter of good business policy alone, municipalities can afford no longer to bar the more capable persons from the city hall. For those employees now in the service the cities need to expand the training programs already begun so that they can obtain full returns from their personnel investments and enjoy the services of well-trained, intelligent civil servants. No personnel program can approach completeness without making adequate provision for training.

The restriction of the field of municipal employment by the practice of local preference likewise has affected adversely the Texas municipal civil service. Although the fallacies of local preference have been exposed repeatedly, the forces of reaction combine in a tenacious manner to insure a survival of the practice. The limitation of the administrative posts to local applicants hampers the introduction of new techniques and eventuates too often in the feeling of self-satisfaction so prevalent in many quarters. The possibilities for transfers of employees among the several levels of government are almost unlimited. The small city, particularly in the instance of the position of secretary, can serve as a training ground for those desirous of progressing toward more responsible posts elsewhere. Despite the admitted difficulties which an attack on the problem of local preference involves, the benefit to be derived by the city from an increased fluidity of personnel makes the

effort not only worthwhile but necessary if municipal administration is to receive the most intelligent direction.

Another defect of the Texas municipal civil service is the failure to utilize to an effective degree the potential manpower already on the pay roll. In city after city casual observation reveals that no studies have been made or even contemplated as to the best methods of utilizing the time and energies of the available employees with a view to realizing the highest returns from their services. Large and small cities alike are guilty of negligence on this score, which appears to be most acute in the police department. In this connection it is interesting to note that the control of insurance rates by the State has caused a more careful consideration of the use of fire personnel. It is evident that the general complaint of municipal administrators that their staffs are undermanned might well be solved in part in many cities by an investigation of the current amount of the employees' time which is not being utilized.³

As if these local conditions were not enough, the two-year constitutional limitation on tenure continues to block the efforts of those who would establish a progressive municipal personnel program. The extent to which this limitation will be applied to the municipal civil service is as yet undetermined, but the judicial pronouncements to date leave no doubt that it will be interpreted to cover a considerable portion. The constitutional provision, which prevents the extension of the merit system to the State and county services, needs to be removed as quickly as possible, since its continued presence will reduce the effectiveness of a State merit system when one is established. The proposals which follow, therefore, are based upon a program

³Mayors and managers in many cities of this State fail to realize the elementary fact that physical conditions, as represented by lighting, ventilation, and so forth, have much to do with the output of an individual. Here again many cities neglect to provide, at a small additional cost, aids which would improve considerably the working conditions of the employees and thereby increase the amount of work done.

which in large part ignores this limitation and presupposes its repeal.

Although a few of the cities have possessed merit systems for years, the movement for an improved public service personnel in this State is in its infancy. In 1930 there were thirty-seven cities of 10,000 population and above, twelve of which were 40,000 and over. Six of these twelve cities possess personnel agencies, but none is found among the twenty-five cities between 10,000 and 40,000. In addition, no provision has been made for merit systems in the 254 counties and in the State government, despite the large number of employees. The lack of attention accorded the civil service in county and State is evidenced by the fact that no one knows at the present time the number of public employees in these jurisdictions. The implications of this neglect as they relate to the functioning of these units undoubtedly can be measured largely in terms of lost opportunities for service.

Efforts in the past to establish a State personnel agency have proved abortive. The character of the opposition to this movement has varied from time to time and is not of immediate concern to us here. What is important is that the establishment of a State merit system has only been postponed and appears to be an inevitable development in the course of time. With a State civil service which decreased only slightly during the depression and has increased in recent months due to the creation of new administrative units, it appears to be logical to expect that Texas must soon recognize the imperative need of a personnel system for its employees.

Granting this supposition the question now arises: What should be the relationship between the State and the city with regard to personnel administration? The practices in other states offer no definite answer to this query, since various degrees of control are exercised by the state agency, ranging from complete domination to none at all. Perhaps the most complete state control of the municipal civil service is found in Massachusetts and New York. The Massachusetts State Civil Service Commission has direct charge

of examinations in the larger cities, and the police and fire departments of certain cities are under its jurisdiction. In New York the State Civil Service Department may disapprove a rule or regulation of a local civil service commission and even remove local commissioners for certain offenses. New Jersey permits the State Civil Service Commission to act directly in the matter of classification and recruitment for the counties and cities which elect to come under the provisions of its optional law. Ohio has made it compulsory for cities to appoint a civil service commission; in the event of failure to act, the state commission has the authority to make appointments and formulate rules and regulations. Authority is granted the state personnel director of North Carolina to survey the personnel conditions of local units of government and make recommendations as to needed changes. California cities are permitted to adopt their own personnel systems or to contract with another city or with the state for the rendering of personnel services.

A system providing for direct state control, such as is found in Massachusetts or New York, would be inadvisable in Texas for a number of reasons. In the first place, the size of the State and the diversity of its population would render difficult the administration of the municipal civil service from Austin. Second, the experience of Massachusetts with its system of state control, as shown by a recent investigation, is such as not to recommend this plan for adoption elsewhere without extensive modifications.⁴ Third, the record of the State administration in other fields is not sufficiently impressive to warrant the belief that it could

⁴George C. S. Benson, *The Administration of the Civil Service in Massachusetts* (Cambridge, Mass., 1935). The conclusion of this study was (p. 78) "that state administration of local civil service has aroused so much political antagonism and caused so much political friction that standards were lowered rather than raised. We do not wish to imply that state administration would always have that result; we merely wish to assert that it has had that result in Massachusetts."

improve on municipal practice. Finally, the spirit of localism still prevails in Texas, and any movement looking toward marked centralization in all likelihood would be doomed to defeat.

This is not to say, of course, that a State personnel agency is not needed. In fact, in many respects the absence of a merit system in the State government has impeded the development of municipal merit systems. After all, the problems confronting State and city are similar in many respects and the superior position of the State could be employed to encourage the installation of merit systems in the municipalities. A State personnel agency, in addition to its normal duties, could serve the cities in a number of ways. By virtue of its larger staff and better equipment, it could conduct experiments with different types of examining procedures as well as other personnel techniques, and make the results available for use by the cities. Cities too small to support a separate personnel agency could contract with the State for the performance of needed services.

The State personnel unit need not limit its activities to formal personnel problems alone. Its central position at the State capital could be employed to develop an association composed of the personnel officers throughout the State.⁵ By this means, actual training programs for personnel officers already in the service could be conducted with an interchange of opinion acting to benefit all those in attendance. The location of The University of Texas at Austin offers an additional opportunity for the conduct of training programs for persons desirous of entering the field of public personnel administration. For several years the personnel division of the State of California and the University of California have coöperated in the conduct of a graduate seminar in personnel administration which is taught by

⁵Public personnel administrators and members of civil service commissions will do well to consider the services offered by the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada (850 East 58th St., Chicago, Illinois), which is the national organization of public personnel agencies.

members of the state personnel staff.⁶ Students in this course are permitted to take the examination for entrance into the state personnel division and several placements have been made. Some such system as this might be inaugurated at Austin, since the development of merit systems in other cities of the State, plus their eventual extension to the county when the constitutional limitation on tenure has been removed, will result in a need for trained personnel officers capable of installing and administering civil service programs.

In addition to the potential services which might be rendered by a State personnel agency, Texas cities should not overlook the possibilities of conducting a coöperative personnel program based on their own efforts. Through their state organization, the League of Texas Municipalities, the smaller cities desirous of obtaining the benefits of a merit system but unable to bear the cost might well devise a plan of action whereby the League would add to its staff trained personnel technicians equipped to supply necessary personnel services to the municipality at a minimum expense. In this regard the experiment now being conducted by the Michigan Municipal League of performing certain personnel functions for the cities of that state should be observed closely, since it may furnish the answer to the question as to the proper method of providing the small municipality with the essentials of a merit system. Nor would this service of necessity be confined to the smaller cities. Personnel technicians could answer a vital need of the larger municipalities for competent advice on the myriad problems arising in the day-to-day routine of personnel administration. Such a program need not conflict with the efforts of a State personnel agency to assist cities; in fact each would supplement the other in the movement toward an improved municipal civil service.

⁶William Brownrigg, "Coöperative Training of Personnel Technicians," *Civil Service Observer*, Vol. 2 (November, 1934), pp. 133-136; and Louis J. Kroeger, "A Research Program in Public Personnel Administration," *ibid.* (December, 1934), pp. 145-152.

The inauguration of a merit system in the State government might well encourage the transfer of capable administrators among the several public jurisdictions. Particularly is this feasible in the instance of the city and county located within the same boundaries. Local preference would not operate with such intensity here, although the present tendency to regard the city and county as separate units would no doubt give rise to some opposition. The possibilities for transfers between the State and the city are also attractive in that opportunity would be presented for the development of a career system for the administrative class. A few transfers of this type are made at the present time but the development of a continuous policy of exchange is made impossible by the spoils system.

Efforts to secure the adoption of the career system, however, should be made with the knowledge that it will apply ordinarily to the administrative class alone, and that the bulk of the civil service is composed of the rank and file which ordinarily will be recruited from within the municipal limits. The principal duties of present and future personnel agencies will be those of installing and operating programs looking to recruitment, equitable compensation, training, and innumerable other activities designed to secure a competent civil service for the city. Progress must be made all along the line if the desired goal is to be attained.

The opportunity for a general attack on the personnel problem in many respects is greater today than at any time in the past. The continued demands of taxpayers and other interested groups that the cost of government be reduced and that governmental activities be administered in an efficient manner cannot fail to have important repercussions for the public service. The presence of only six municipal civil service commissions and the complete absence of formal personnel systems in State and county, while regrettable as evidences of past delinquencies, offer an excellent opportunity to inaugurate personnel programs unhampered by traditional practices firmly embedded as the result of years of routine observance. The time is ripe, therefore,

for a concerted forward movement along the entire personnel front looking to the elimination of the spoils system and lax civil service methods—a movement in which the municipality should play a leading rôle. The city cannot fail to profit from any progress which may be recorded in the realm of public personnel administration.

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